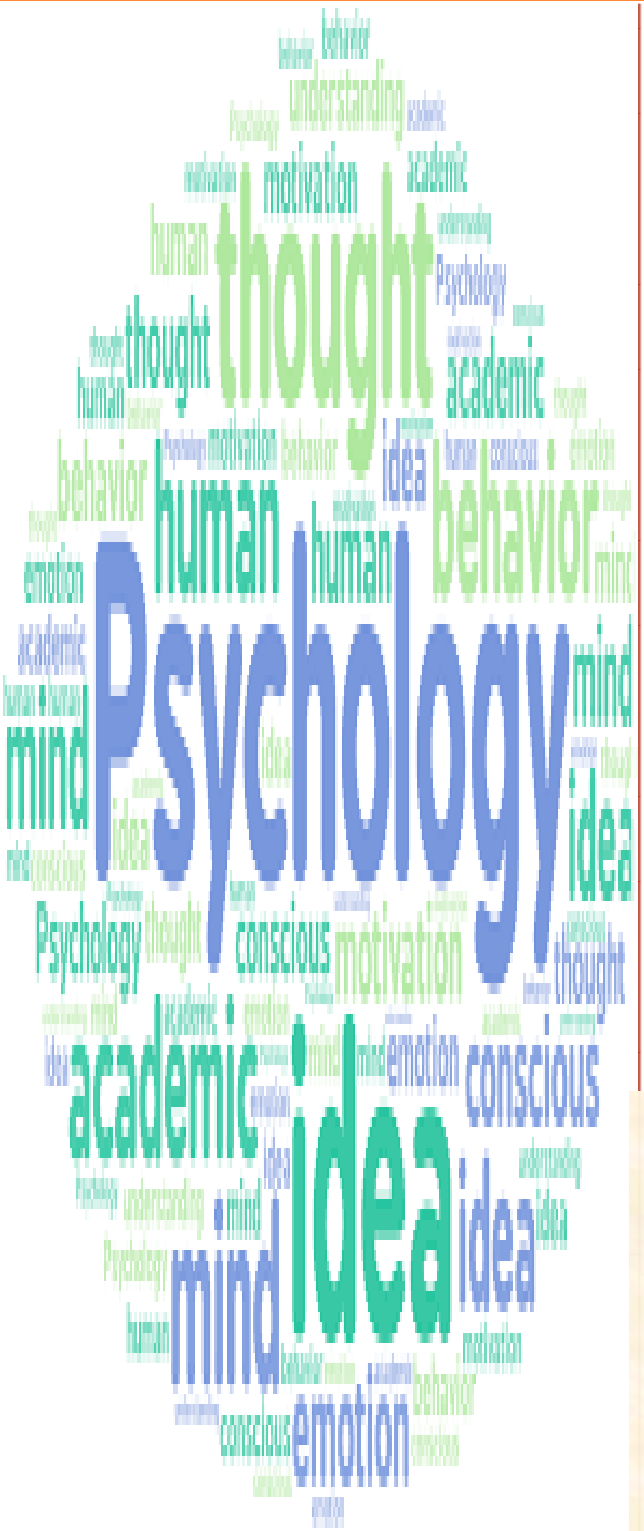
UNIT-7 Personality, Motivation, emotion, stress and coping



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What is Determinants of personality: Biological and socio-cultural Approaches to the study of personality: Psychoanalytical, Neo-Freudian, Social learning, Trait and Type, Cognitive, Humanistic, Existential, Transpersonal psychology. Other theories: Rotter's Locus of Control, Seligman's Explanatory styles, Kohlberg's theory of Moral development?

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Determinants of personality: Biological and socio-cultural

Man is not born a person. At birth he is an infant possessing the potentiality of becoming a person. After birth he associates with other human beings and comes under the influence of their culture. As a result of a variety of experiences and social influences he becomes a person and comes to possess a personality.

The nature of personality and to show the role of culture and social experience in the formation of personality along with the problem of

personality disorganisation. Since socialization plays the most important part in the development of personality and we have discussed it already, the present discussion, therefore, can only be brief.

I. The Meaning of Personality:

The term 'personality' is derived from the Latin word 'persona' which means a mask. According to K. Young, "Personality is a …. patterned body of habits, traits, attitudes and ideas of an individual, as these are organised externally into roles and statuses, and as they relate internally to motivation, goals, and various aspects of selfhood." G. W. Allport defined it as "a person's pattern of habits, attitudes, and traits which determine his adjustment to his environment."

According to Robert E. Park and Earnest W. Burgess, personality is "the sum and organisation of those traits which determine the role of the individual in the group." Herbert A. Bloch defined it as "the characteristic organisation of the individual's habits, attitudes, values, emotional characteristics……. which imparts consistency to the behaviour of the individual." According to Arnold W. Green, "personality is the sum of a person's values (the objects of his striving, such as ideas, prestige, power and sex) plus his non-physical traits (his habitual ways of acting and reacting)." According to Linton, personality embraces the total "organised aggregate of psychological processes and status pertaining to the individual."

Personality, as we understand it, says MacIver, "is all that an individual is and has experienced so far as this "all" can be comprehended as unity." According to Lundberg and others, "The term personality refers to the habits, attitudes, and other social traits

that are characteristic of a given individual's behaviour." By personality Ogburn means "the integration of the socio psychological behaviour of the human being, represented by habits of action and feeling, attitudes and opinions." Davis regards personality "a psychic phenomenon which is neither organic nor social but an emergent from a combination of the two."

On the basis of these definitions it may be said there are two main approaches to the study of personality:

(1) The psychological
(2) The sociological.

Although there is also a third approach, the biological approach, but the biological definition of personality which comprehends only the bio-physical characteristics of the individual organism is inadequate. The psychological approach considers personally as a certain style peculiar to the individual. This style is determined by the characteristic organisation of mental trends, complexes, emotions and sentiments.

The psychological approach enables us to understand the phenomena of personally disorganisation and the role of wishes, of mental conflict, and of repression and sublimation in the growth of personality. The sociological approach considers personality in terms of the status of the individual in the group, in terms of his own conception of his role in the group of which he is a member. What others think of us plays a large part in the formation of our personality.

Thus personality is the sum of the ideas, attitudes and values of a person which determine his role in society and form an integral part of his character. Personality is acquired by tie individual as a result of his participation in group life. As a member of the group he learns certain behaviour systems and symbolic skills which determine his ideas, attitudes and social values.

To sum up we would say that:

(i) Personality is not related to bodily structure alone. It includes both structure and dynamics

(ii) Personality is an indivisible unit.

(iii) Personality is neither good nor bad.

(iv) Personality is not a mysterious phenomenon.

(v) Every personality is unique.

(vi) Personality refers to persistent qualities of the individual. It expresses consistency and regularly.

(vii) Personality is acquired.

(viii) Personality is influenced by social interaction. It is defined in terms of behaviour.

The Types of Personality:

Some attempts have been made to classify personalities into types. In the 5th century B. C., the Greek physician Hippocrates divided human beings into four types: the sanguine, the melancholic, the choleric, and the phlegmatic. The Swiss psychoanalyst, Carl Gustac Jung, distinguished between two main types, the introvert and the

extrovert. The introvert is preoccupied with his own self; the extrovert with things outside self.

In these two types there is a third type—the ambiverts who are neither the one nor the other but vacillate between the two. The majority of people are ambiverts. According to Ernest Kretchmer the German psychiatrist, the extrovert personality is a stout person while the introvert one is a tall and slender person. The first type of persons he called “pykrnic” the second type he called “leptosome” W.I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki distinguished among the Bohemian, the Philistine, and the Creative.

II. Determinants of Personality:

Personality is a result of the combination of four factors, i.e., physical environment, heredity, culture, and particular experiences. Here we discuss each factor determining personality separately.

Personality and Environment:

Above we described the influence of physical environment on culture and pointed out that geographical environment sometimes determines cultural variability. That the Eskimos have a culture different from that of the Indians is due to the fact that the former have a geography different from the latter.

Man comes to form ideas and attitudes according to the physical environment he lives in.

To the extent that the physical environment determines cultural development and to the extent, that culture in turn determines personality, a relationship between personality and environment becomes clear. Some two thousand years ago, Aristotle claimed that people living in Northern Europe were owing to a cold climate,

full of spirit but lacking in intelligence and skill. The natives of Asia, on the other hand, are intelligent and inventive but lack in spirit, and are, therefore, slaves.

Montesquieu, in the eighteenth century, claimed that the bravery of those blessed by a cold climate enables them to maintain their liberties. Great heat enervates courage while cold causes a certain vigour of body and mind. At high temperatures, it is said there is disinclination to work and so civilizations have grown up where the temperatures have been average near or below the optimum.

The people of mountains as well as deserts are usually bold, hard and powerful. Huntington's discussion of the effects of physical environment on man's attitudes and mental make-up is very exhaustive. However, as told previously, the physical conditions are more permissive and limiting factors than causative factors. They set the limits within which personality can develop.

Thus, climate and topography determine to a great extent the physical and mental traits of a people, but it cannot be said that they alone determine human behaviour. Most kinds of personality are found in every kind of culture. The fact remains that civilizations have appeared in regions of widely different climate and topography. Christianity knows no climate belts.

Peoples are monogamous in high altitudes and flat lands, under tropical temperate and arctic conditions. Men's attitudes and ideas change even when no conceivable geographic change has occurred. Proponents of geographic determinism oversimplify the human personality and so their interpretations are to be accepted only after close scrutiny.

Heredity and Personality:

Heredity is another factor determining human personality. Some of the similarities in man's personality are said to be due to his common heredity. Every human group inherits the same general set of biological needs and capacities. These common needs and capacities explain some of our similarities in personality. Man originates from the union of male and female germ cells into a single cell which is formed at the moment of conception.

He tends to resemble his parents in physical appearance and intelligence. The nervous system, the organic drives and the duchess glands have a great bearing upon personality. They determine whether an individual will be vigorous or feeble, energetic or lethargic, idiot of intelligent, coward or courageous.

A man with a good physical structure and health generally possess an attractive personality. A man of poor health, pigmy size and ugly physical features develops inferiority complex. The growth of his personality is checked. Rejected and hated by the society he may turn out to be a thief, dacoit, or drunkard. It is also probable that he may become a leader, or a genius like Socrates and Napoleon. Likewise the nervous system and glandular system may affect the personality of an individual.

The nervous system affects the intelligence and talent of the individual. The hormones affect the growth of personality. Too many or too less of hormones are harmful. Some men are over-patient, overzealous, overactive and overexcited while others are lazy, inactive, and weak. The reason may be secretion of more hormones in the first case and less hormones in the latter case. For a normal personality there should be a balanced secretion of hormones.

Heredity may affect personality in another way, i.e., indirectly. If boys in a society prefers slim girls as their companion, such girls will receive greater attention of the society providing them thereby more opportunities to develop their personality. According to Allport, Gordon, W. no feature of personality is devoid of hereditary influence.

However, heredity does not mould human personality alone and unaided. “For the present, we can only assume that there are - genes for normal personality traits just as there are genes for other aspects of human make-up and functioning. Where in members of the same family, in a similar environment, we can see great differences in personality, we may ascribe these in part at least to differences in gene contributions.

We can also guess that some of the family similarities in personality are genetically influenced. But we are still a long way from identifying specific ‘personality’ genes, gauging their effects or hazarding predictions as to what the personality of a given child will be on the basis of what we know about its parents.” However, according to a news report (Times of India, Jan. 3, 1996) the scientists have identified a gene which influences impulsiveness, excitability and extravagance.

In short, heredity can never be considered as charting a fixed and definite course of anyone’s personality. At the best, what anyone inherits are the potentialities for a wide range of personalities, the precise form into which a personality will “jell” being determined by circumstances. Ogburn and Nimkoff write, “It would be an error to hold, as’ endocrine enthusiasts do, that the glands determine the whole personality, include rich things, as one’s opinions, one’s habits, and one’s skills.” t is possible to over-activate or under-

activate some of these kinds by injecting certain kinds of hormones and thereby affect human personality. In other words, it may be said that the available evidence does not support the dogmatic view that personality is biologically transmitted.

Of course, there are some traits which seem to be more directly affected by heredity than others. Manual skills, intelligence and sensory discriminations are some of the abilities which appear more highly developed in some family lines than others. But other traits such as one's beliefs, loyalties, prejudices and manners are for the most part the result of training and experience.

Heredity only furnishes the materials out of which experience will mould the personality. Experience determines the way these materials will be used. An individual may be energetic because of his heredity, but whether he is active on his own belief or on behalf of others is a matter of his training.

Whether he exerts himself in making money or in scholarly activity is also dependent upon his bringing. If personality is a direct consequence of heredity tendencies or traits then all the sons and daughters of the same parents brought up in the same environment should have identical personalities or at least personalities that are very much alike.

But investigation shows that even at the tender age of three or four years they show quite distinct personalities. The new born human being is, to use the phrase of Koenig, Hopper and Gross, a "candidate for personality." It is, therefore, clear that an individual's heredity alone would not enable us to predict his traits and values.

Personality and Culture:

There can be little doubt that culture largely determines the types of personality that will predominate in the particular group. According to some thinkers, personality is the subjective aspect of culture. They regard personality and culture as two sides of the same coin.

Spiro has observed, 'The development of personality and the acquisition of culture are not different processes, but one and the same learning process." Personality is an individual aspect of culture, while culture is a collective aspect of personality." Each culture produces its special type or types of personality.

In 1937 the anthropologist Ralph Linton and the psychoanalyst Abram Kardinar began a series of joint explorations of the relationship between culture and personality by subjecting to minute study reports of several primitive societies and one modern American village. Their studies have demonstrated that each culture tends to create and is supported by a "basic personality type." A given cultural environment sets its participant members off from other human beings operating under different cultural environments.

According to Frank, 'culture is a coercive influence dominating the individual and moulding his personality by virtue of the ideas, conceptions and beliefs which had brought to bear on him through communal life."

The culture provides the raw material of which the individual makes his life. The traditions, customs, mores, religion, institutions, moral and social standards of a group affect the personality of the group members. From the moment of birth, the child is treated in ways which shape his personality. Every culture exerts a series of general influences upon the individuals who grow up under it.

Ogburn as we noted above, divided culture into “material” and “non-material.” According to him, both material and non-material culture have a bearing on personality. As for the termer he provides examples of the influence of plumbing on the formation of habits and attitudes favourable to cleanliness and the relation of time-pieces to punctuality. The American Indians who have no clocks or watches in their culture have little notion of keeping appointments with any exactness.

According to him, they have no sense of time. The personality of an American Indian differs from that of a white man in the matter of punctuality and this is because of differences in their culture. Similarly, some cultures greedy value cleanliness as witnessed by the saying: “Cleanliness is next to godliness.” This trait of cleanliness is greatly encouraged by the technology of plumbing and other inventions that are found with it.

The Eskimos are dirty because they have to hang a bag of snow down their backs to melt it in order to get water. A man who has just to turn on a tap of water will naturally be more clean than an Eskimo. Cleanliness, therefore, is a matter not of heredity but of the type of culture. As for the connection between the non-material culture and personality, language affords an instructive example. We know that one of the principal differences between man and animals is that he alone possesses speech.

Language can be learnt only in society. People who cannot speak exhibit warped personality. Since language is the essential medium through which the individual obtains his information and his attitudes, therefore, it is the principal vehicle for the development of personality. Moreover, speech itself becomes a trait of personality.

The coarse voice of woodcutter can be readily distinguished from the hushed tones of a man.

The short, crisp, guttural speech of the German seems to be part of his personality, as does the fluid, flowing voluble speech of the Spaniard. Movements of the hands and shoulders in speech are regarded as part of the very core of the personalities of Italians and Jews. The Jews use their gestures for emphasis only, while Italians depend upon them to convey part of the meaning.

Another illustration of the influence of culture on personality is the relationship of men and women. In the earlier period when farming was the principal business, women generally had no occupations outside the home, and naturally, therefore, they were economically dependent upon their fathers or husbands. Obedience was a natural consequence of such conditions. But today hundreds of women work outside the homes and earn salaries.

They enjoy equal rights with men and are not so dependent upon them as they were in the past. Attitude of independence instead of obedience has today become a trait of women's personality. With the growing realisation of the importance of culture for personality, sociologists have recently made attempts to identify the factors in particular cultures which give a distinctive stamp to the individuals within the group. Ruth Benedict analyzed the cultures of three primitive tribes and found that cultures may be divided into two major types—The Apollonian and the Dionysian.

The Apollonian type is characterised by restraint, even temperances, moderation and co- operativeness, whereas the Dionysian type is marked by emotionalism, excess, pursuit of prestige, individualism and competitiveness. The Zuni culture is

classified as Appollonian, while the Kwakiuti and Dobuans as Dionysian.

The personality of the Hindus in India differs greatly from that of Englishmen. Why ? The answer is ‘a different Hindu culture’. The Hindu culture lays emphasis not on material and worldly things, but on things spiritual and religious. In every Hindu family there is a religious environment. The mother gets up early in the morning, takes bath and spends an hour in meditation. When the children get up, they go and touch the feet of their parents and bow before the family gods or goddesses. The Hindu child from the very birth begins to acquire a religious and philosophical personality built on the “inner life.”

From the various illustrations cited so far it is thus clear that culture greatly moulds personality. The individual ideas and behaviour are largely the results of cultural conditioning. There is a great difference of ideas between the Hindu devotee immersed in religion and the Russian Communist who thoroughly rejects it.

However, it should not be concluded that culture is a massive die that shapes all who come under it with an identical pattern. All the people of a given culture are not of one cast. Personality traits differ within any culture, some people in any culture are more aggressive than others, some are more submissive, kind and competitive. Personality is not totally determined by culture, even though no personality escapes its influence.

It is only one determinant among others. Ruth Benedict writes, “No anthropologist with a background of experiences of other cultures has ever believed that individuals were automatons, mechanically carrying out the decrees of their civilizations.

No culture yet observed has been able to eradicate the difference in the temperaments of the persons who compose it. It is always a give and take affair." Linton classified cultural influence into the universals, specialities and alternatives and came to the conclusion that culture makes for uniformity of personality only through the universals and since universals are few in number as compared with specialities and alternatives, the effect of culture is to make for variety as well as uniformity.

Personality and Particular Experiences:

Personality is also determined by another factor, namely, the particular and unique experiences. There are two types of experiences one, those that stem from continuous association with one's group, second, those that arise suddenly and are not likely to recur. The type of people who meet the child daily has a major influence on his personality. The personality of parents does more to affect a child's personality.

If the parents are kind, tolerant of boyish pranks, interested in athletics and anxious to encourage their child's separate interests the child will have a different experience and there shall be different influence on his personality than the one when the parents are unkind, quick tempered and arbitrary. In the home is fashioned the style of personality that will by and large characterise the individual throughout his life.

Social rituals,' ranging from table manners to getting along with others, are consciously inculcated in the child by parents. The child picks up the language of his parents. Problems of psychological and emotional adjustments arise and are solved appropriately by each child in terms of the cultural values and standards of the family. The

family set up tends to bring the child into contact with his play-mates and teachers. What his play-game members are, and his school teachers are will also determine his personality development.

Group influences are relatively greater in early childhood. This is the period when the relationships of the child with his mother, father and siblings affect profoundly the organisation of his drives and emotions, the deeper and unconscious aspects of his personality.

A certain degree of maturation is needed before the child can understand the adult norms. The basic personality structure that is formed during this period is difficult to change. Whether a person becomes a leader, a coward, an imitator? whether he feels inferior or superior, whether he becomes altruistic or egoistic depends upon the kind of interaction he has with others. Group interaction moulds his personality.

Away from the group he may become insane or develop queer attitudes. As a child grows he develops wish for response and wish for recognition. To his organic needs are added what are called ‘sociogenic’ needs which are highly important motivating forces in personality. How the idea of self develops in the child is an important study. The self does not exist at birth but begins to arise as the child learns something of the world of sensation about him.

He comes to learn of what belongs to him and takes pride in his possessions. He learns that parts of his body belong to him. He becomes acquainted with his name and paternity and comes to distinguish himself from others. The praise and blame he receives from others account in large measure for his conduct. The development of self leads to the growth of conscience and ego.

Our view of self conception is usually based on the opinion of others about us. It does not. however, mean that we value all opinions about our conduct equally. We attach importance only to the opinions of those whom we consider for one reason or the other significant than others.

Our parents are usually most significant than others since they are the ones who are intimately related to us and have greatest power than others over us especially during the early years of life. In short, our early experiences are very important in the formation of our personality. It is in early life that the foundations of personality are laid.

Why are the children brought up in the same family differ from one another in their personality, even though they have had the same experiences? The point is that they have not had the same experiences. Some experiences are similar while others are different. Each child enters a different family unit.

One is the first born, he is the only child until the arrival of the second. The parents do not treat all their children exactly alike. The children enter different play groups, have different teachers and meet different incidents. They do not share all incidents and experiences. Each person's experience is unique as no body else perfectly duplicates it. Thus, each child has unique experiences exactly duplicated by no one and, therefore, grows a different personality.

Sometimes a sudden experience leaves an abiding influence upon the personality of an individual. Thus a small child may get frightened at the view of a bloody accident, and even after the accident he may be obsessed of the horror of fear. Sometimes a

girl's experience with a rapist may condemn her to a life of sexual maladjustment.

A book may not uneaten challenge a man to renounce the world and seek God. If a man meets an accident which cripples or weakens him, he may come to entertain the feelings of inadequacy. Lord Buddha is said to have been led to renunciation by the sight of a funeral procession. In this way experiences also determine one's personality.

However, it may be noted that one's own personality that one has acquired at any moment will in part determine how the experiences influence his pre-acquired personality. Thus a child who is robust, outgoing, athletic would find his parents in the first case a model for behaviour, a model that would deepen the already apparent personality traits. But if the child is shy, retiring and bookish he may find such parents' personality distasteful and intensify the opposed personality trends already apparent.

It may also be referred that personality is a matter of social situations. It has been shown by social researchers that a person may show honesty in one situation and not in another. The same is true for other personality traits also. Personality traits tend to be specific responses to particular situations rather than general behaviour patterns. It is a dynamic unity with a creative potential.

Heredity, physical environment, culture and particular experiences are thus the four factors that explain personality—its formation, development and maintenance. Beyond the joint influence of these factors, however, the relative contribution of each factor to personality varies with the characteristic or personality process involved and, perhaps, with the individual concerned.

Genetic or hereditary factors may be more critical for some personality characteristics, while environmental factors, (cultural, financial), may be more important for others. Furthermore, for any one characteristic, the relative contribution of one or another factor may vary from person to person.

Also there is no way yet known to measure the effect of each factor or to state how the factors combine to produce a given result. The behaviour of a juvenile delinquent is affected by his heredity and by his home life. But how much is contributed by each factor, cannot be measured in exact terms.

III. Personality Disorganization:

Society everywhere demands from its members conformity to its folkways and mores, to its values and standards. But often the individual fails to meet the requirements of the society in which he lives. As a result, he develops personality problems and becomes disorganised. Such a person is considered a mental case, a case of mental derangement or abnormality. The peculiarity about him is that his behaviour is unpredictable.

He differs so systematically and persistently from the normative assumptions and mental habits of others that they cannot understand the motivations and hence do not know what to expect. He remains socially isolated because in his ease there is breakdown of communicative understanding.

Personality disorganisation, therefore, means that the individual is out of adjustment with society who has failed to organize the chief goals of his life into an integrated whole so as to achieve unity of the self. Personality disorganisation may take the milder or serious forms of mental disorder such as neuroses or psychoses. In

addition to mentally disorganized persons there are other examples of personality disorganisation in the alcoholics, criminals, gamblers, prostitutes and drug addicts who are mentally normal but socially abnormal.

Causes of Personality Disorganisation:

The failure of an individual to adjust himself to society may be due to the factors inherent in the individual or in the society in which he lives. He may have been born with a mental disability which prevents his integration into society. Organism is, no doubt, a necessary condition for an integrated personality; but it is society which is far more frequently responsible for personality disorganisation. Moreover, in sociology our interest is only in the social aspects of human behaviour and hence to the social causes of personality disorganisation.

Our society is very complex, competitive and contradictory. It makes excessive demands upon the individual. Different groups with different moral standards and different cultural backgrounds create different notions of what is right and what is wrong. In the midst of these varying notions the individual gets confused. He fails to find out the right way of social behaviour and relapses into abnormal behaviour.

Secondly, in the modern society man's desires have increased manifold. The advertising has stimulated his desires which often cannot be satisfied. If the desires remain unsatisfied frustration naturally results. Repeated frustration tends to produce a generalized lack of confidence in one's ability to achieve any end, and a generalized conception of oneself as less efficient and less worthy than others. Karen Horney has pointed out that neurotic

person continually stands in his own way. His lack of order in his ends makes it hard for him to achieve any particular end.

Thirdly, the rapid changes in society create new ideas, set up new standards while the old ones still persist. All this leaves the individual bewildered and helpless in coping with the new situation in which he finds himself. Under these circumstances the individual may become a victim of mental disorder, commit suicide or become a criminal. Block distinguished five paths which an individual may pursue when he is caught in a situation of profound social change to which he has difficulty in adjusting. He may —

(i) Return to the old forms of behaviour, or

(ii) Create his own way of behaviour and seek to have it adopted by society, or

(iii) Attack the existing social order through various types of antisocial behaviour, such as crime or theft or

(iv) Take refuge in a retreat from society, or

(v) Escape from life by committing suicide.

Culture and Personality Disorganisation:

There is a close relation between culture and personality disorganisation. Every human being in modern culture suffers from inner conflicts. Though some mental disorders may be of an organic or constitutional nature, but most mental disorders arise from, inner conflicts and are created by the incompatible values of Culture. Davis writes, “So far as mental disorder is concerned the significant question is…… Whether the social system…….. is unified by a nucleus of common values.

When the structure embraces conflicting principles of social organisation based on the incompatible values, psychic conflicts inevitably result." The stresses and strains imposed by culture sometimes seem to be too heavy to bear and lead to mental disorders. According to Ogburn and Nimkoff, "Cultures have their own characteristic mental disorders reflecting distinctive cultural influences." Every culture embodies cultural categories and values.

If the individual fails to make good within the framework of cultural categories and values, the result is personal disorganisation. Moreover, there are conflicts and contradictions in every culture. Not only different persons hold different attitudes but the same individual holds contradictory and conflicting attitudes. Even within the family there may be incompatible values and loyalties. The girl's father may be a non-vegetarian, a smoker and strict materialist.

But her mother may be a vegetarian, teetotaller and a believer in spiritualism. Her brother may be a strong opponent of women's rights and a staunch nationalist whereas her sister may be an ardent advocate of women's rights and an internationalist. Her uncle may be a lover of art and of things medieval while her aunt may scorn art and scoff at everything that was said and thought before the nineteenth century.

Her grandmother may be given to idol-worship while her grand-father may be an atheist. Add to it the different values held by her friends, her teachers, and her favourite authors and the situation becomes appalling. In short, it may be said that every culture is heterogeneous presenting incompatible values. It is a house divided against itself.

In the temple we exalt spiritualism, but in the market we glorify materialism. We profess co-operation but actually practise cut throat competition. We swear by rights and yet practise untouchability. These inner contradictions arise from the myriads of possible wishes of individuals and scores of alternative ways of satisfying some of these wishes. Hence personality disorganisation is bound to occur in every culture.

Many psychiatrists believe that it is during the main period of socialization, i.e., during childhood and in the main socialization groups such as family, play groups and school that the basis is laid for the personality disorganisation. Inconsistent discipline by people who themselves are disintegrated tends to produce cases of personal disorganisation. The child may fail to form habits or acquire attitudes which may protect him from going to pieces in face of problems which another person might easily solve.

Personal Disorganisation in Primitive Societies:

Primitive societies are said to be comparatively free of disorganized individual. Thus Ellis-worth Faris found an almost complete absence of psychoses among the Congo Bantu. Not a single member of the staff of four hospitals visited could tell Faris of a single case of split personality. Similarly, Ruth Benedict found it lard to explain the meaning of suicide to the peaceful Zuni Indians, the word was unfamiliar to them.

The absence of personality disorganisation to a marked degree in the primitive societies is due to the fact that they are better integrated societies. The degree of personality disorganisation depends upon the degree of society's integration rather than upon the number of regulatory agencies and the extent of social control.

In modern society man is subject to a number of regulatory agencies, every aspect of his life stands controlled today by one or the other agency.

Social control in modern society though less effective is nevertheless more prevailing. The volume of state legislation having gone very high, the individual finds himself under the control of one regulation or the other at every step. Yet inspite of such an extending social control and there being numerous formal regulatory agencies the degree of personal disorganisation in modern society is greater.

In the simple folk society, man may not have possessed a high degree of freedom, yet he was free of the many of the uncertainties and insecurities which beset modern 'civilized' man. The modern society is a "mass society" wherein despite the greater interdependence, individuals have been alienated from one another.

The individual has lost a coherent sense of self. He feels disillusioned about his own identity and detached from the goals valued in society. He is confused about what he ought to believe and feels that he cannot control the events which impinge upon him. Modern man is an impoverished "thing."

Thus what is important in causing or preventing personal disorganisation is not so much the extent of social control or the number of regulatory agencies, but the degree of the society's disintegration. If the life of an individual is well- rounded, if every part of his life—economic, social, religious and aesthetic—is bound together into a significant whole in respect to which he is far from a passive pawn and if he plays a moulding role in the mechanism of this culture, he will seldom suffer from personal disorganisation.

Individuals in primitive societies, as many anthropological studies show, become seriously disorganized when their society and culture come into close contact with western civilization and their system of folkways and mores breaks down. In such a situation the individual slips out of “the warm embrace-of a culture into the cold air of fragmentary existence.”

There is a close relationship between the lack of integration of a society and personal disorganisation. Thomas and Znaniecki attributed personal disorganisation in the Polish community in the United States to the complex urban civilization as the peasant community in Poland suffered few problems of personality disorganisation. The transplantation of individuals from a simpler life to a complex urban civilization opens them to the greater risks of personality disorganisation.

That is why that urban people suffer more from personality disorganisation than the rural people. Mandel Sherman and Thomas R. Henry, the two American psychologists after having studied five mountain communities discovered that the one farthest removed from the influence of civilization had the most stable personalities than the one in closest contact with modern urban life.

Similarly, a number of psychologists, psychiatrists and psycho-analysts agreeing with the point of view of sociologists and anthropologists referred to society as to? Main source of personality problems. In short, the complexity of chosen society and its accompanying problems are the major Causes of personality disorganisation. This also emphasizes the production that personality is in the main a societal product.

However, this is not the .whole story, for there are obliviously organic factors in addition. The organic side of personality disorganisation cannot be dispensed with altogether. True, the organism is a necessary condition in personality integration and disintegration; however, there are strains that nobody, no matter how well balanced, can withstand. Everyone has his breaking point. It is a question of how a man takes the situation. So the determining factor is the situation. The situational factors should not be underemphasized and the organic factors overemphasized when considering the problem of personality disorganisation.

Personality Reorganisation:

The cases of personality disorganisation have increased in modern society, there is no denying the fact. The social scientists are busy in analyzing the causes and finding out the remedies. There is, however, still a difference of opinion as to the best way to proceed.

Those who regard organic factors as the main determinants of social behaviour seek to improve it through eugenic means of one kind or another. The psychologists, psychiatrists and psychoanalysts try to find the cause and remedy in the individual alone as if he were living in a vacuum.

Biological Personality

How much of our personality is in-born and biological, and how much is influenced by the environment and culture we are raised in? Psychologists who favor the biological approach believe that

inherited predispositions as well as physiological processes can be used to explain differences in our personalities (Burger, 2008).

In the field of behavioral genetics, the Minnesota Study of Twins Reared Apart—a well-known study of the genetic basis for personality—conducted research with twins from 1979 to 1999. In studying 350 pairs of twins, including pairs of identical and fraternal twins reared together and apart, researchers found that identical twins, whether raised together or apart, have very similar personalities (Bouchard, 1994; Bouchard, Lykken, McGue, Segal, & Tellegen, 1990; Segal, 2012). These findings suggest the heritability of some personality traits. **Heritability** refers to the proportion of difference among people that is attributed to genetics.

Some of the traits that the study reported as having more than a 0.50 heritability ratio include leadership, obedience to authority, a sense of well-being, alienation, resistance to stress, and fearfulness. The implication is that some aspects of our personalities are largely controlled by genetics; however, it's important to point out that traits are not determined by a single gene, but by a combination of many genes, as well as by epigenetic factors that control whether the genes are expressed.

Temperament

Most contemporary psychologists believe temperament has a biological basis due to its appearance very early in our lives (Rothbart, 2011). As you learned when you studied lifespan development, Thomas and Chess (1977) found that babies could be categorized into one of three temperaments: easy, difficult, or slow to warm up. However, environmental factors (family interactions, for

example) and maturation can affect the ways in which children's personalities are expressed (Carter et al., 2008).

Research suggests that there are two dimensions of our temperament that are important parts of our adult personality—reactivity and self-regulation (Rothbart, Ahadi, & Evans, 2000). Reactivity refers to how we respond to new or challenging environmental stimuli; self-regulation refers to our ability to control that response (Rothbart & Derryberry, 1981; Rothbart, Sheese, Rueda, & Posner, 2011). For example, one person may immediately respond to new stimuli with a high level of anxiety, while another barely notices it.

CONNECT THE CONCEPTS: BODY TYPE AND TEMPERAMENT

Is there an association between your body type and your temperament? The constitutional perspective, which examines the relationship between the structure of the human body and behavior, seeks to answer this question (Genovese, 2008). The first comprehensive system of constitutional psychology was proposed by American psychologist William H. Sheldon (1940, 1942). He believed that your body type can be linked to your personality. Sheldon's life's work was spent observing human bodies and temperaments. Based on his observations and interviews of hundreds of people, he proposed three body/personality types, which he called somatotypes.

The three somatotypes are ectomorphs, endomorphs, and mesomorphs. Ectomorphs are thin with a small bone structure and very little fat on their bodies. According to Sheldon, the ectomorph personality is anxious, self-conscious, artistic, thoughtful, quiet, and private. They enjoy intellectual stimulation and feel uncomfortable in

social situations. Actors Adrien Brody and Nicole Kidman would be characterized as ectomorphs. Endomorphs are the opposite of ectomorphs. Endomorphs have narrow shoulders and wide hips, and carry extra fat on their round bodies. Sheldon described endomorphs as being relaxed, comfortable, good-humored, even-tempered, sociable, and tolerant. Endomorphs enjoy affection and detest disapproval.

Queen Latifah and Jack Black would be considered endomorphs. The third somatotype is the mesomorph. This body type falls between the ectomorph and the endomorph. Mesomorphs have large bone structure, well-defined muscles, broad shoulders, narrow waists, and attractive, strong bodies. According to Sheldon, mesomorphs are adventurous, assertive, competitive, and fearless. They are curious and enjoy trying new things, but can also be obnoxious and aggressive. Channing Tatum and Scarlett Johannson would likely be mesomorphs.

Socio-cultural Personality

Psychology has been slow to embrace the value of cross-cultural research (see Lee et al., 1999; Sue, 1999; Triandis & Suh, 2002). This concern is by no means new. In 1936, Ralph Linton wrote that "different societies seem to show differences in the relative frequency of occurrence of the various psychological types" (pg. 484), and in 1973, Robert LeVine suggested that "this is a moment at which even those who are skeptical about the value of culture and personality study might consider stretching their curiosity in this direction" (pg. ix).

Throughout this textbook we will examine a number of theorists who emphasized studying cultural differences as a significant part of their careers and, often, their personality theories as well.

However, it remains true that cross-cultural studies in psychology have only recently moved closer to the mainstream of psychological research and clinical practice. As of 2002, the American Psychological Association has "Guidelines on Multicultural Education, Training, Research, Practice, and Organizational Change for Psychologists" (www.apa.org/pi/multiculturalguidelines/homepage.html).

To cite just a few examples of the range of current interest in cross-cultural psychology, we now have a Dictionary of Multicultural Psychology (Hall, 2005) and books on the relationships between culture, mental illness, and counseling (Axelson, 1999; Castillo, 1997), as well as on the relationships between race, class, and the social and personal development of women (Jordan, 1997b; Pack-Brown, Whittington-Clark, & Parker, 1998). There are also major new texts on African American psychology (Belgrave & Allison, 2006) and racism, prejudice, and discrimination in America (Miller & Garran, 2008; Whitley & Kite, 2006).

The fact that studying cross-cultural factors in personality has always been present in the careers and theories of certain individuals, while not becoming a mainstream focus of attention, is more than just an historical curiosity.

By emphasizing biological factors (i.e., genetics), Freud's theory did not allow for cultural differences. Behavioral theorists emphasized environmental factors, a seemingly cultural approach, but they did

not allow themselves to address factors beyond immediate scientific control.

Thus, they defined with great precision the role of reinforcement, punishment, discriminative stimuli, etc., while not allowing for the richness of cognition and cultural experiences. Likewise, cognitive theorists clung to the scientific approach of the behaviorists, rather than embracing the potential of sociocultural perspectives.

In other words, because strict Freudian theorists, as well as behavioral and cognitive theorists, believed that their theories applied to all people equally, they typically chose not to address differences between people. Thus, those who wished to bring sociocultural perspectives on the development of personality into the field of personality theory faced a degree of direct opposition. And yet, their perseverance is now being fulfilled.

Cultural Studies in the Field of Psychology

Since the 1990s, a number of general books on psychology and culture have been available (e.g., Brislin, 2000; Lonner & Malpass, 1994; Matsumoto, 1994, 1997; Matsumoto & Juang, 2004; Okun, Fried, & Okun, 1999; Price & Crapo, 2002; Segall et al., 1990). Although all of these books address topics such as the “self” and person-perception, and other various aspects of personality, only a few of them devote an actual chapter or section to the topic of personality itself (Matsumoto & Juang, 2004; Price & Crapo, 2002; Segall et al., 1990), and in each case the topics are fairly specific. There is, however, some older literature on the relationships between culture, society, and personality.

We will examine that research in the second part of this section. First, let us examine some of the general principles of incorporating cross-cultural perspectives into the study of personality.

The Challenges of Cultural Research

The first problem faced by those who are interested in the study of culture and personality is the question: what exactly is to be studied? At the most basic level, there are two types of research. **Cross-cultural research** typically refers to either parallel studies being conducted in different cultures, or similar concepts being studied in different cultures. In contrast, **intercultural research** is the study of individuals of different cultures interacting with one another (Brislin, 2000; Matsumoto & Juang, 2004; Segall et al., 1990). As you will see in later chapters, some personality theorists consider interpersonal relationships to be the only true domain for studying individual personality.

While most of the research done in psychology has been cross-cultural, as the world becomes more and more of a global community the opportunity for, and importance of, intercultural research is rapidly expanding.

Another fundamental problem with the study of culture is our attention to it, or rather, the lack of attention we pay to something that is so deeply ingrained in our daily lives. Richard Brislin suggests the following exercise: write down three answers for someone from a different culture who asks "What should I know about your culture so that we can understand each other better?" (pg. 10; Brislin, 2000).

Because we simply take our cultural influences for granted, it proves quite difficult for us to think that they need to be identified or

explained. For example, freedom of speech is a cherished right in America. Consequently, we often speak our minds. If I am upset about some new college policy, I might say very negative things about the administration of our college, even about particular administrators.

It does not mean I intend to be disrespectful, or that I dislike those individuals, or that I won't say positive things about them when I agree with the next new policy. It is simply an expression of one of the great freedoms in our society: the right to speak out. However, someone from a different culture, particularly a collectivist culture, might be shocked at my apparent disrespect toward my "superiors."

The next important issue is the difference between **emic** and **etic** tasks or behaviors. Simply put, emic tasks are those that are familiar to the members of a given culture, whereas etic tasks are common to all cultures.

In an elegantly simple, yet revealing study, Irwin, Schafer, & Feiden (1974) demonstrated these phenomena in two cultures: American undergraduates and Mano rice farmers (from Liberia). The American college students were consistently better at performing the Wisconsin Card Sort, a well-known psychological test measuring cognitive reasoning skills, which relies on geometric shapes and color.

The Mano farmers, however, were consistently better at sorting different categories of rice. Thus, the ability to sort items into categories appears to be an etic task (most likely common to all humans, regardless of culture), whereas the more specific abilities to sort by geometry and color (common to American college students) or type of rice grain (common to Mano farmers in Liberia)

is an emic task that requires familiarity. Thus, if we made a judgment about the Mano farmers' cognitive abilities based on the Wisconsin Card Sort, we would clearly be making a mistake in comparing them to Americans, due to the unfamiliarity of the particular task.

Another important aspect of cross-cultural research, which may involve applying our understanding of etics and emics, is the issue of **equivalence**. Is a concept being studied actually equivalent in different cultures? In other words, does a concept mean the same thing in different cultures, is the comparison valid? For example, an etic related to intelligence is the ability to solve problems.

So how might we compare different cultural groups? Would the speed with which they solve a problem make sense as a measure of intelligence? Such an answer would be emic, and therefore valid, in America (where we typically value independence and competition).

However, among the Baganda of Uganda, slow and careful thought is the emic. Among the Chi-Chewa of Zambia, the emic is responsibility to the community, i.e., solving the problem in order to best get along with other people.

Thus, the speed at which people solve problems is conceptually equivalent, since it is the way in which people in each culture identify those individuals who are considered intelligent (Brislin, 2000). However, we cannot compare the actual speed of reporting a solution to others, as this is viewed quite differently in each culture.

One particular type of equivalence that raises a very interesting problem is that of **translation equivalence**. Psychologists often want to use tests developed in their own language with people of a different culture who speak a different language. Translating a test from one language to another can be a difficult task. The best way to assess translation equivalence is through **back translation**. In this procedure, one person translates the test, or survey, into the foreign language, and then a different person translates the foreign language test back into the original language. The original test can then be compared to the back translated test to see how closely they are worded.

Ideally they would be identical, but this is seldom the case. To give you a simple example, when I was in graduate school, we had a student from Taiwan join our research group. One day I asked her to translate my last name, Kelland, into a Chinese character. When she had done that, I asked her how she would translate that particular Chinese character into English for someone who was not Chinese. She translated the character as Kwang. Despite the first letter, I hardly consider Kwang to be a reasonable translation of Kelland, but she didn't seem to think of this as much of a problem (perhaps revealing another

cultural difference!). When the process of back translation is used successfully, which may involve working back and forth with the translations, it has the effect of **decentering** the test from the original language. Specifically, that means that the test should be free of any culturally emic references or aspects that interfere with the translation equivalence of the different versions of the test (Brislin, 2000; Matsumoto & Juang, 2004).

While the list of issues pertaining to cross-cultural research goes on, let's consider just two more specific issues: **cultural flexibility** and **cultural response sets**. Cultural flexibility refers to how individuals are willing to change, or adapt, in situations in which they know there are cultural differences. For example, American businesspeople can stand about 15 minutes of small talk before getting down to business.

Their Japanese counterparts, in contrast, consider it important to get to know their business partners, and they are comfortable with hours of conversation about a variety of topics. This would, of course, be an important consideration for anyone studying the relationship between individual personality and success in business situations in this intercultural setting.

Cultural response sets refer to how a given culture typically responds. If a given culture is more reserved, and they are asked to rate the importance of some value in comparison to how a more open culture rates that value, a difference in the rating may reflect the cultural difference in responding, rather than the degree to which people in each culture value the variable being measured (Brislin, 2000; Matsumoto & Juang, 2004).

Placing Cross-Cultural Studies in Context: Blending Psychology with Anthropology

As the field of psychology entered the twenty-first century, there was a groundswell of interest in cultural factors as they pertain to all areas of psychology. In the field of personality, as well as in other areas, there have always been individuals with an interest in culture and society, but they tended to remain as individuals. Although they were often admired for their unique interests and ideas, the major

emphasis in psychology was on the scientific method and data that had been obtained in carefully controlled situations, and then analyzed with similar, exacting precision. Culture, as difficult as it is to define, was left largely to anthropologists and sociologists.

Anthropologists, in particular, were not as shy about addressing the domain of psychology, and a number of anthropologists crossed over into the study of psychology to such an extent that they are often mentioned even in the introductory psychology textbooks. But given that their primary interest was in anthropology, they did not form detailed personality development theories of the type presented in this (or other) personality textbooks. In this chapter, however, we will take a look at some of the ideas presented by the renowned anthropologist Ralph Linton, and his occasional colleague Abram Kardiner, a psychoanalyst with an associate appointment in the same anthropology department as Linton. In addition to their books, students of personality with a strong interest in cultural influences on personality will also find the works of Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead of great interest.

The Influence of Culture and Society on Personality

Many psychology textbooks mention a few famous anthropologists, such as Ruth Benedict and Margaret Mead, whose research included work on child development and personality. However, less well-known in the field of psychology is the renowned anthropologist Ralph Linton, who paid particular attention to personality development in relation to culture and society. Linton also collaborated with Abram Kardiner, a founding member of the New York Psychoanalytic Institute (and who was analyzed by Sigmund Freud himself in 1921-1922). Linton and Kardiner freely acknowledged the connections between anthropology and

psychology, noting the influence of Benedict and Mead, Franz Boas (recognized as the father of American anthropology and mentor to both Benedict and Mead), and the psychoanalysts Anna Freud, Erich Fromm, Karen Horney, and Wilhelm Reich (Kardiner, 1939; Kardiner, Linton, DuBois, & West, 1945; Kardiner & Preble, 1961).

Linton described personality as existing on three levels. First, personality can be described based on either its content or its organization. The organization, furthermore, can be examined in terms of its superficial organization or its central organization. The central organization of personality gives the whole personality its distinctive character, and includes the most invariant aspects of personality, such as the degree of introversion/extraversion, or other aspects of temperament (Linton, 1936, 1945). Although these temperamental attributes are present at birth, they do not comprise personality per se.

The superficial organization of personality, however, is based on the goals and interests of the individual, and incorporates the individual's experiences in life within the context of the central organization. In this regard, the superficial organization should not be confused with something transient or insignificant. It is "superficial" only in the sense that it is on the surface of the personality, and the goals and interests of the person are based on the content of personality that represents their life experiences as they are organized within the personality.

The goals and interests themselves, which incorporate the content of personality, are determined almost entirely by the culture in which the individual is raised. According to Linton (1936), the process of integrating the individual's experience within the context of one's

temperament (or "constitutional qualities") forms a "mutually adjusted, functional whole."

A critical question, of course, is whether cultural experiences can affect the central organization. Linton (1936, 1945, 1955) believed that no matter how an individual receives the cultural characteristics of their society, they are likely to internalize them, a process known as **enculturation**. One of the main reasons that enculturation is so influential in every aspect of the person's being, is that it pervades every aspect of the society in which the person lives.

Thus, even someone who is considered a rebel, most likely exists within a range of rebellion that is possible within that particular culture. This is directly related to the apparent reality that cultures do give rise to certain types of personality. Making the matter even more complicated, or simpler depending on one's perspective, is the role of status within a culture. Thus, although a given culture or society, or one's own temperament, may influence personality in one direction, a particular social class might influence personality in a different direction.

An individual born into a given class, whose personal constitution does not fit that class, may develop what Linton called a **status personality**, i.e., a persona that fits with societies expectations for the individual in certain settings. For example, someone born into an upper middle class family involved in business, who is personally rather introverted and withdrawn, may present a confident and outgoing personality when working, and only upon returning home do they revert to their natural inclination to be shy and quiet.

One of the most interesting points made by Linton is that individuals with complimentary personalities are also mutually adjusted. The most obvious example is that of the gender roles of men and women. Men are expected, in many cultures and societies, to be the dominant member of the family, as well as the "bread-winner."

Conversely, women are expected to be submissive, and to remain home and care for the household and the children. In this way, the men and women together complete the necessary tasks for family life without entering into conflict (at least in theory!). In some cultures, these gender roles are quite relaxed with regard to the sex of the individual.

Amongst the Comanche (a Native American tribe), men whose personalities were not at all suited to being warriors assumed a special role, that of **berdache** (Linton, 1936). The berdache wore women's clothes, and typically fulfilled a woman's role, but they were treated with somewhat more respect than women (in keeping with the patriarchal nature of the society). Some were homosexuals (though not all), and even married.

This was generally accepted, and any disapproval these relationships received was directed toward the warrior husband, not the berdache!

Abram Kardiner, a psychoanalyst who collaborated with Linton, shared the same general perspective on the relationship between personality and culture, and attempted to put the relationship into psychological terms. He distinguished between the **basic personality**, or **ego structure**, which he considered to be a cultural phenomenon, and the individual's **character**, which is

their unique adaptation to the environment within their cultural setting. Thus, each individual develops a unique character, but only within the constraints of the culturally-determined range of potential ego structure (Kardiner, 1939).

The process of personality development, within a cultural setting, results in what Kardiner called a **security system**. The security system of the individual is the series of adaptations that serve to ensure the individual's acceptance, approval, support, esteem, and status within the group.

Thus, for each person within a given cultural group, their basic personality is formed through an ongoing interaction with the very culture in which that person needs to be (and, hopefully, will be) accepted as a member. Both of Kardiner's major books,

The Individual and His Society (Kardiner, 1939) and The Psychological Frontiers of Society (Kardiner, et al., 1945), offer extraordinary examples of detailed anthropological studies of a wide variety of cultures followed by psychoanalytic evaluations of the functions served by various aspects of the cultural practices of those people.

Robert LeVine, like Kardiner, was an anthropologist and psychoanalyst with a strong interest in personality (LeVine, 1973, 1974). He begins by asking the question of whether there are differences in personality between different cultural groups.

If there are not, then any analysis of the nature or causes of those alleged differences is meaningless. If there are differences, can we then point to specific evidence that the environment can elicit changes in those differences? The answer is yes to both, and as one example LeVine points to the dramatic **acculturation** of rural

immigrants from underdeveloped areas of Europe and Asia who emigrated to industrialized countries, such as the United States, and within two or three generations had radically altered not only their basic ways of life, but also their social class (moving from traditional peasantry to the middle-class; LeVine, 1973).

LeVine also continued Kardiner's approach of using a psychoanalytic perspective to evaluate and compare the nature of different cultures, and he proposed the term **psychoanalytic ethnography**. In an effort to justify the use of psychoanalytic ethnography, LeVine argues that there are enough common elements in the nature of all people and cultures to provide for valid comparisons of the differences between those same people and cultures (LeVine, 1973).

One of the most striking discussions of the relationship between culture and the potential for personality development was offered by Pitirim Sorokin, the founder of Harvard University's sociology department and a colleague of the trait theorist Gordon Allport (see Chapter 13).

Sorokin points out that culture can have a dramatic influence on the biological substrates of personality. For example, through the use of contraception, abortion, etc., many potential individuals are never born. Conversely, if such measures are prohibited, many unwanted children are born.

In addition, cultural rules and norms against sexual intercourse and/or marriage between certain age groups, races, social classes, families, religions, etc., directly influence the potential for genetic variation within and across different groups of humans (Sorokin, 1947). Indeed, Sorokin took such a broad view of the role of society

and culture in the environmental universe of each individual, that he described trying to understand sociocultural phenomena by locating them in terms of **sociocultural space** and **sociocultural distance**. The concept of sociocultural distance has taken on new meaning since Sorokin proposed it over 50 years ago.

Today, anyone can travel around the world in a matter of hours or days, and many people do so regularly. Technology and globalization have dramatically reduced the distance between people, and consequently brought their cultural differences into contact with one another. Efforts to study cultures and societies alter the location of sociocultural phenomena within our own universe of personal development. In other words, by studying the relationships between society, culture, and personality, we are altering the meaning and influence of those relationships, hopefully for the better.

As a final note, although this section has highlighted the influence of anthropologists and sociologists on cross-cultural research in the study of personality, there has also been an influence from psychology on these investigators.

As noted above, both Abram Kardiner and Robert LeVine were psychoanalysts. In addition, Kardiner acknowledges having learned a great deal from a professor named John Dollard. Dollard was a sociologist who had studied psychoanalysis and who collaborated with Neal Miller (a psychologist trained in learning theory) in an effort to apply classical learning theory to psychodynamic theory (see Chapter 10).

Dollard contributed a chapter to one of Linton's books, and was cited by both LeVine and Sorokin (who was, again, also a colleague

of Allport). Given such an interesting interaction between the fields of psychology, anthropology, and sociology over half a century ago, it seems surprising that psychology is only now emphasizing the value of focusing on cultural influences on personality development.

Approaches to the study of personality: Psychoanalytical

Research into these five philosophical questions has branched into several different approaches to studying personality. The major theories include the psychodynamic, neo-Freudian, learning (or behaviorist), humanistic, biological, trait (or dispositional), and cultural perspectives.

- Psychodynamic theory, originating with Sigmund Freud, posits that human behavior is the result of the interaction among various components of the mind (the id, ego, and superego) and that personality develops according to a series of psychosexual developmental stages.
- Neo-Freudian theorists, such as Adler, Erikson, Jung, and Horney, expanded on Freud's theories but focused more on the social environment and on the effects of culture on personality.
- Learning theories, such as behaviorism, regard an individuals' actions as ultimately being responses to external stimuli. Social learning theory believes that personality and behavior are determined by an individual's cognition about the world around them.

- Humanistic theory argues that an individual's subjective free will is the most important determinant of behavior. Humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers believed that people strive to become self-actualized—the "best version" of themselves.
- Biological approaches focus on the role of genetics and the brain in shaping personality. Related to this, evolutionary theories explore how variation in individual personalities variance may be rooted in natural selection.
- Trait theorists believe personality can be conceptualized as a set of common traits, or characteristic ways of behaving, that every individual exhibits to some degree. In this view, such personality traits are different from person to person but within an individual are stable over time and place.
- With any of these theories, it is important to keep in mind that the culture in which we live is one of the most important environmental factors that shapes our personalities. Western ideas about personality are not necessarily applicable to other cultures, and there is evidence that the strength of personality traits varies across cultures.

Genetics, the Brain, and Personality

The biological perspective on personality emphasizes the influence of the brain and genetic factors on personality.

- The biological perspective on personality focuses on why or how personality traits manifest through biology and

investigates the links between personality, DNA, and processes in the brain.

- In psychology, ” temperament ” refers to the personality tendencies that we show at birth (and that are therefore biologically determined). After birth, environmental factors and maturation interact with a child’s temperament to shape their personality.
- The field of behavioral genetics focuses on the relationship between genes and behavior. Research from twin studies suggests that some aspects of our personalities are largely controlled by genetics.
- The biological approach to personality has also identified areas and pathways within the brain, as well as various hormones and neurotransmitters, that are associated with the development of personality.
- One of the first documented cases that demonstrated the link between personality and the brain was that of Phineas Gage, who underwent a drastic personality change after a brain

Phineas Gage: A Case Study

One of the first documented cases that demonstrated the link between personality and the brain was that of Phineas Gage. In 1858, Gage was working as a blasting foreman for a railroad company. Due to a faulty blast, a railroad spike was blown through his head; miraculously, he survived the accident.

The spike pierced Gage’s frontal lobe, and Gage experienced many subsequent changes in aspects of personality that we now know are associated with this area of the brain. The changes in Gage’s

personality after his brain injury spurred interest in the biological factors involved in personality and implicated the frontal lobe as an important area associated with higher-order personality functions.

Gender and Personality

In much the same manner that cultural norms can influence personality and behavior, gender norms (the behaviors that males and females are expected to conform to in a given society) can also influence personality by emphasizing different traits between different genders.

Ideas of appropriate behavior for each gender (masculine and feminine) vary among cultures and tend to change over time. For example, aggression and assertiveness have historically been emphasized as positive masculine personality traits in the United States. Meanwhile, submissiveness and caretaking have historically been held as ideal feminine traits. While many gender roles remain the same, others change over time. In 1938, for example, only 1 out of 5 Americans agreed that a married woman should earn money in industry and business. By 1996, however, 4 out of 5 Americans approved of women working in these fields. This type of attitude change has been accompanied by behavioral shifts that coincide with changes in trait expectations and shifts in personal identity for men and women.

Approaches to Studying Personality in a Cultural Context

There are three approaches that can be used to study personality in a cultural context: the cultural-comparative approach, the indigenous approach, and the combined approach, which incorporates elements of the first two approaches.

- The cultural-comparative approach seeks to test Western ideas about personality in other cultures to determine whether they can be generalized and if they have cultural validity (Cheung van de Vijver, & Leong, 2011). For example, researchers used the cultural-comparative approach to test the universality of McCrae and Costa's Five Factor Model. They found applicability in numerous cultures around the world, with the Big Five traits being stable in many cultures (McCrae & Costa, 1997; McCrae et al., 2005).
- The indigenous approach came about in reaction to the dominance of Western approaches to the study of personality in non-Western settings (Cheung et al., 2011). Because Western-based personality assessments cannot fully capture the personality constructs of other cultures, the indigenous model has led to the development of personality assessment instruments that are based on constructs relevant to the culture being studied (Cheung et al., 2011).
- The third approach to cross-cultural studies of personality is the combined approach, which serves as a bridge between Western and indigenous psychology as a way of understanding both universal and cultural variations in personality (Cheung et al., 2011).

Freudian Slip

Unconscious thoughts and feelings can transfer to the conscious mind in the form of parapraxes, popularly known as Freudian slips or slips of the tongue. We reveal what is really on our mind by saying something we didn't mean to.

For example, a nutritionist giving a lecture intended to say we should always demand the best in bread, but instead said bed. Another example is where a person may call a friend's new partner by the name of a previous one, whom we liked better.

Freud believed that slips of the tongue provided an insight into the unconscious mind and that there were no accidents, every behavior (including slips of the tongue) was significant (i.e., all behavior is determined).

Social Learning Theory

In social learning theory, Albert Bandura (1977) agrees with the behaviorist learning theories of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. However, he adds two important ideas:

1. Mediating processes occur between stimuli & responses.
2. Behavior is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning.

Observational Learning

Children observe the people around them behaving in various ways. This is illustrated during the famous Bobo doll experiment (Bandura, 1961).

Individuals that are observed are called models. In society, children are surrounded by many influential models, such as parents within the family, characters on children's TV, friends within their peer group and teachers at school. These models provide examples of

behavior to observe and imitate, e.g., masculine and feminine, pro and anti-social, etc.

Children pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode their behavior. At a later time they may imitate (i.e., copy) the behavior they have observed.

They may do this regardless of whether the behavior is 'gender appropriate' or not, but there are a number of processes that make it more likely that a child will reproduce the behavior that its society deems appropriate for its gender.

First, the child is more likely to attend to and imitate those people it perceives as similar to itself. Consequently, it is more likely to imitate behavior modeled by people of the same gender.

Second, the people around the child will respond to the behavior it imitates with either reinforcement or punishment. If a child imitates a model's behavior and the consequences are rewarding, the child is likely to continue performing the behavior.

If a parent sees a little girl consoling her teddy bear and says "what a kind girl you are," this is rewarding for the child and makes it more likely that she will repeat the behavior. Her behavior has been reinforced (i.e., strengthened).

Reinforcement can be external or internal and can be positive or negative. If a child wants approval from parents or peers, this approval is an external reinforcement, but feeling happy about being approved of is an internal reinforcement. A child will behave in a way which it believes will earn approval because it desires approval.

Positive (or negative) reinforcement will have little impact if the reinforcement offered externally does not match with an individual's needs. Reinforcement can be positive or negative, but the important factor is that it will usually lead to a change in a person's behavior.

Third, the child will also take into account of what happens to other people when deciding whether or not to copy someone's actions. A person learns by observing the consequences of another person's (i.e., models) behavior, e.g., a younger sister observing an older sister being rewarded for a particular behavior is more likely to repeat that behavior herself. This is known as vicarious reinforcement.

This relates to an attachment to specific models that possess qualities seen as rewarding. Children will have a number of models with whom they identify. These may be people in their immediate world, such as parents or older siblings, or could be fantasy characters or people in the media. The motivation to identify with a particular model is that they have a quality which the individual would like to possess.

Identification occurs with another person (the model) and involves taking on (or adopting) observed behaviors, values, beliefs and attitudes of the person with whom you are identifying.

The term identification as used by Social Learning Theory is similar to the Freudian term related to the Oedipus complex. For example, they both involve internalizing or adopting another person's behavior. However, during the Oedipus complex, the child can only identify with the same sex parent, whereas with Social Learning

Theory the person (child or adult) can potentially identify with any other person.

Identification is different to imitation as it may involve a number of behaviors being adopted, whereas imitation usually involves copying a single behavior.

There are four mediational processes proposed by Bandura:

1. **Attention**: The extent to which we are exposed/notice the behavior. For a behavior to be imitated, it has to grab our attention. We observe many behaviors on a daily basis, and many of these are not noteworthy. Attention is therefore extremely important in whether a behavior influences others imitating it.

2. **Retention**: How well the behavior is remembered. The behavior may be noticed but is it not always remembered which obviously prevents imitation. It is important therefore that a memory of the behavior is formed to be performed later by the observer.

Much of social learning is not immediate, so this process is especially vital in those cases. Even if the behavior is reproduced shortly after seeing it, there needs to be a memory to refer to.

3. **Reproduction**: This is the ability to perform the behavior that the model has just demonstrated. We see much behavior on a daily basis that we would like to be able to imitate but that this not always possible. We are limited by our physical ability and for that reason, even if we wish to reproduce the behavior, we cannot.

This influences our decisions whether to try and imitate it or not. Imagine the scenario of a 90-year-old-lady who struggles to walk watching Dancing on Ice. She may appreciate that the skill is a desirable one, but she will not attempt to imitate it because she physically cannot do it.

4. **Motivation**: The will to perform the behavior. The rewards and punishment that follow a behavior will be considered by the observer. If the perceived rewards outweigh the perceived costs (if there are any), then the behavior will be more likely to be imitated by the observer. If the vicarious reinforcement is not seen to be important enough to the observer, then they will not imitate the behavior.

Traits & Personality Types:

What makes someone who they are? Each person has an idea of their own personality type if they are bubbly or reserved, sensitive or thick-skinned. Psychologists who try to tease out the science of who we are define personality as individual differences in the way people tend to think, feel and behave.

There are many ways to measure personality, but psychologists have mostly given up on trying to divide humanity neatly into types. Instead, they focus on personality traits.

The most widely accepted of these traits are the Big Five:

- Openness
- Conscientiousness
- Extraversion

- Agreeableness
- Neuroticism

Conveniently, you can remember these traits with the handy OCEAN mnemonic (or, if you prefer, CANOE works, too).

The Big Five were developed in the 1970s by two research teams. These teams were led by Paul Costa and Robert R. McCrae of the National Institutes of Health and Warren Norman and Lewis Goldberg of the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor and the University of Oregon, according to Scientific American.

The Big Five are the ingredients that make up each individual's personality. A person might have a dash of openness, a lot of conscientiousness, an average amount of extraversion, plenty of agreeableness and almost no neuroticism at all. Or someone could be disagreeable, neurotic, introverted, conscientious and hardly open at all. Here's what each trait entails:

Openness

Openness is shorthand for "openness to experience." People who are high in openness enjoy adventure. They're curious and appreciate art, imagination and new things. The motto of the open individual might be "Variety is the spice of life."

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People low in openness are just the opposite: They prefer to stick to their habits, avoid new experiences and probably aren't the most adventurous eaters. Changing personality is usually considered a tough process, but openness is a personality trait that's been shown to be subject to change in adulthood. In a 2011 study, people who

took psilocybin, or hallucinogenic "magic mushrooms," became more open after the experience. The effect lasted at least a year, suggesting that it might be permanent.

Conscientiousness

People who are conscientious are organized and have a strong sense of duty. They're dependable, disciplined and achievement-focused. You won't find conscientious types jetting off on round-the-world journeys with only a backpack; they're planners.

People low in conscientiousness are more spontaneous and freewheeling. They may tend toward carelessness. Conscientiousness is a helpful trait to have, as it has been linked to achievement in school and on the job.

Extraversion

Extraversion versus introversion is possibly the most recognizable personality trait of the Big Five. The more of an extravert someone is, the more of a social butterfly they are. Extraverts are chatty, sociable and draw energy from crowds. They tend to be assertive and cheerful in their social interactions.

Introverts, on the other hand, need plenty of alone time, perhaps because their brains process social interaction differently. Introversion is often confused with shyness, but the two aren't the same. Shyness implies a fear of social interactions or an inability to function socially. Introverts can be perfectly charming at parties — they just prefer solo or small-group activities.

Agreeableness

Agreeableness measures the extent of a person's warmth and kindness. The more agreeable someone is, the more likely they are to be trusting, helpful and compassionate. Disagreeable people are cold and suspicious of others, and they're less likely to cooperate.

Men who are high in agreeableness are judged to be better dancers by women, suggesting that body movement can signal personality. (Conscientiousness also makes for good dancers, according to the same 2011 study.) But in the workplace, disagreeable men actually earn more than agreeable guys. Disagreeable women didn't show the same salary advantage, suggesting that a no-nonsense demeanor is uniquely beneficial to men.

Being envious, which can lead to people being perceived as not agreeable, was found to be the most common personality type out of the four studies by a report published in August 2016 in the journal Science Advances. Envious people feel threatened when someone else is more successful than they are.

Neuroticism

To understand neuroticism, look no further than George Costanza of the long-running sitcom "Seinfeld." George is famous for his neuroses, which the show blames on his dysfunctional parents. He worries about everything, obsesses over germs and disease and once quits a job because his anxiety over not having access to a private bathroom is too overwhelming.

George may be high on the neuroticism scale, but the personality trait is real. People high in neuroticism worry frequently and easily slip into anxiety and depression. If all is going well, neurotic people tend to find things to worry about. One 2012 study found that when

neurotic people with good salaries earned raises, the extra income actually made them less happy.

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In contrast, people who are low in neuroticism tend to be emotionally stable and even-keeled.

Unsurprisingly, neuroticism is linked with plenty of bad health outcomes. Neurotic people die younger than the emotionally stable, possibly because they turn to tobacco and alcohol to ease their nerves.

Possibly the creepiest fact about neuroticism, though, is that parasites can make you feel that way. And we're not talking about the natural anxiety that might come with knowing that a tapeworm has made a home in your gut. Undetected infection by the parasite Toxoplasma gondii may make people more prone to neuroticism, a 2006 study found.

Other personality measures

Sensing and intuition refer to how people prefer to gather information about the world, whether through concrete information (sensing) or emotional feelings (intuition). Thinking and feeling refer to how people make decisions. Thinking types go with logic, while feeling types follow their hearts.

The Myers-Briggs system is rounded out with the judging/perception dichotomy, which describes how people choose to interact with the world. Judging types like decisive action, while perceiving types prefer open options. The system further identifies 16 personality types based on a combination of four of the categories, leading to descriptions such as ISTP, ENFP, ESFJ, etc.

Cognitive Personality Theories

Cognitive theories of personality focus on the processes of information encoding and retrieval, and the role of expectations, motives, goals, and beliefs in the development of stable personality characteristics. This approach differs from personality theories that emphasize either the conditions within which personality develops (e.g., behavioral theories) or the trait structures that are revealed in those various conditions (e.g., evolutionary and trait theories). As such, cognitive theories of personality are particularly relevant for counseling psychology because of their core assumption that lasting personality change can occur as a result of rational analysis and insight.

Personality theories are often categorized as either nomothetic (i.e., personality is understood in terms of an individual having greater or lesser amounts of traits that are common to all people) or idiographic (i.e., each individual has a unique personality structure and may possess traits that others do not possess). Taking a nomothetic approach, a personality theory can be used to generalize about an individual or to categorize the person. For example, a person can be said to have a particular trait or style. On the other hand, personality theories that take an idiographic approach attempt to describe the specific individual in such a way as to show how this one individual is different from all other individuals. Cognitive theories of personality are both nomothetic and idiographic. Nomothetic theorists have demarcated dimensions of individual difference such as cognitive styles. Idiographic theorists have developed complex descriptions of individuals cognitively embedded within their own life contexts.

General Components of Cognitive Personality Theories

Most cognitive theories of personality focus on the ways in which personal knowledge and judgment are developed. Often this development occurs in a distorted fashion because it is necessary for people to adapt to their environment. Humans desire to be consistent in their beliefs and behaviors so that they can predict the outcome of their actions. They are also motivated to gain social approval from others and to enhance their perception of themselves. This can result from a process of comparing one's self with those of others or a process of comparing what one believes is one's actual self with an imagined ideal self. Cognitive personality theorists have focused their efforts on describing the development of cognitions that explain the world and the individual's concept of self in it, and they have also developed some understanding of variations in cognitive styles that predict individual differences.

History of Cognitive Personality Theories

Early ideas related to cognitive theory can be traced back to the Greek Stoic Epictetus, who claimed that processes of rational judgment were at the basis of all emotion, be it happiness or suffering. He stated that events in and of themselves have no moral or ethical meaning. Moral judgment and choice are the consequences of how people come to interpret and understand events.

At the turn of the 20th century, William James championed the idea that no psychological theory is complete that does not allow for a mechanism by which thought will regulate actions. James emphasized the role of the focus of attention in determining behavior. He also anticipated the concept of cognitive schemata by characterizing the stream of consciousness as anticipating and

adapting to current events by comparing current experiences to past experiences.

Early work in social cognition forms a basis of current cognitive personality theory. Fritz Heider, an early social psychologist, emphasized that people act with others on the basis of their conceptions of themselves and of others. Heider developed the notion of phenomenal causality, which is the perception of causality that leads to judgment and action. Heider's ideas led to the development of the field within social psychology known as attribution theory, which is the study of the determinants of phenomenal causality or causal attributions. One important dimension of causal attributions is that of internal (or dispositional) versus external (or situational) attributions. People's judgments and conceptions of an event are largely determined by their beliefs regarding whether people act according to internal dispositions or because of situational pressure. Heider's ideas are often called naive psychology in that the person is described as acting according to his or her own personal theory of psychology regarding others.

Kelly's Theory of Personal Constructs

George A. Kelly's theory of personal constructs is most frequently cited as the first modern cognitive personality theory. Kelly proposed and elaborated upon the metaphor of "person as scientist." Drawing on the theories of Heider and attribution researchers, Kelly proposed that people use observations to develop beliefs about themselves and their world. These observations are organized into personal constructs, which were described by Kelly in terms very similar to the current concept of cognitive schemata. Cognitive schemata are meaningful organizations of related pieces of knowledge. Kelly proposed that

people make predictions and interpretations regarding their experience on the basis of their personal constructs (or schemata), and they endeavor to behave in a manner that is consistent with their personal constructs.

Kelly proposed that personal constructs develop and change through processes that are similar to assimilation and accommodation. As described by the cognitive developmental theorist Jean Piaget, assimilation is the process by which people integrate new information into the existing body of information they already possess.

Accommodation is the process by which people change or modify their existing knowledge based on the information gained from new experiences. Like Piaget, Kelly viewed cognitive development as a continuing interplay between assimilation and accommodation.

For example, children learn to catch a large ball by holding out their arms a certain distance apart as the ball is thrown. Later, when a smaller ball is thrown, they will hold out their arms the same distance apart (assimilation) but fail to catch the ball. They will need to accommodate the new information that the size of the ball must determine the distance apart that they spread their arms (i.e., their catching schema).

Humanistic Approach

Humanistic, humanism and humanist are terms in psychology relating to an approach which studies the whole person, and the uniqueness of each individual. Essentially, these terms refer to the same approach in psychology.

The humanistic approach in psychology developed as a rebellion against what some psychologists saw as the limitations of the behaviorist and psychodynamic psychology. The humanistic approach is thus often called the “third force” in psychology after psychoanalysis and behaviorism (Maslow, 1968).

Humanism rejected the assumptions of the behaviorist perspective which is characterized as deterministic, focused on reinforcement of stimulus-response behavior and heavily dependent on animal research.

Humanistic psychology also rejected the psychodynamic approach because it is also deterministic, with unconscious irrational and instinctive forces determining human thought and behavior. Both behaviorism and psychoanalysis are regarded as dehumanizing by humanistic psychologists.

Humanistic psychology expanded its influence throughout the 1970s and the 1980s. Its impact can be understood in terms of three major areas:

1) It offered a new set of values for approaching an understanding of human nature and the human condition.

2) It offered an expanded horizon of methods of inquiry in the study of human behavior.

3) It offered a broader range of more effective methods in the professional practice of psychotherapy.

Humanistic psychology begins with the existential assumptions that people have free will:

Personal agency is the humanistic term for the exercise of free will. Personal agency refers to the choices we make in life, the paths we go down and their consequences.

People are basically good, and have an innate need to make themselves and the world better:

The humanistic approach emphasizes the personal worth of the individual, the centrality of human values, and the creative, active nature of human beings.

The approach is optimistic and focuses on the noble human capacity to overcome hardship, pain and despair.

People are motivated to self-actualize:

Self-actualization concerns psychological growth, fulfillment and satisfaction in life.

Both Rogers and Maslow regarded personal growth and fulfillment in life as a basic human motive. This means that each person, in different ways, seeks to grow psychologically and continuously enhance themselves.

However, Rogers and Maslow both describe different ways of how self-actualization can be achieved.

The subjective, conscious experiences of the individual is most important:

Humanistic psychologists argue that objective reality is less important than a person's subjective perception and understanding of the world.

Sometimes the humanistic approach is called phenomenological. This means that personality is studied from the point of view of the individual's subjective experience.

For Rogers the focus of psychology is not behavior (Skinner), the unconscious (Freud), thinking (Wundt) or the human brain but how individuals perceive and interpret events. Rogers is therefore important because he redirected psychology towards the study of the self.

Humanism rejects scientific methodology:

Rogers and Maslow placed little value on scientific psychology, especially the use of the psychology laboratory to investigate both human and animal behavior.

Humanism rejects scientific methodology like experiments and typically uses qualitative research methods. For example, diary accounts, open-ended questionnaires, unstructured interviews and unstructured observations.

Qualitative research is useful for studies at the individual level, and to find out, in depth, the ways in which people think or feel (e.g. case studies).

The way to really understand other people is to sit down and talk with them, share their experiences and be open to their feelings.

Humanism rejected comparative psychology (the study of animals) because it does not tell us anything about the unique properties of human beings:

Humanism views human beings as fundamentally different from other animals, mainly because humans are conscious beings capable of thought, reason and language.

For humanistic psychologists' research on animals, such as rats, pigeons, or monkeys held little value.

Research on such animals can tell us, so they argued, very little about human thought, behavior and experience.

Existential psychology

Existential psychology is the area within psychology most closely linked to the field of philosophy. Curiously, this provides one of the most common complaints against existential psychology. Many historians identify the establishment of Wilhelm Wundt's experimental laboratory in Germany in 1879 as the official date of the founding of psychology. Sigmund Freud, with his strong background in biomedical research, also sought to bring scientific methodology to the study of the mind and mental processes, including psychological disorders and psychotherapy.

Shortly thereafter, Americans such as Edward Thorndike and John Watson were establishing behaviorism, and its rigorous methodology, as the most influential field in American psychology. So, as existential psychology arose in the 1940s and 1950s it was viewed as something of a throwback to an earlier time when psychology was not distinguished from philosophy (Lundin, 1979).

However, as with those who identify themselves as humanistic psychologists, existential psychologists are deeply concerned with individuals and the conditions of each unique human life. The detachment that seems so essential to experimental psychologists is unacceptable to existential psychologists.

The difference can easily be seen in the titles of two influential books written by the leading existential psychologists: Man's Search for Meaning by Viktor Frankl (1946/1992) and Man's Search for Himself by Rollo May (1953). Existential psychology differs significantly from humanistic psychology, however, in focusing on present existence and the fear, anguish, and sorrow that are so often associated with the circumstances of our lives (Lundin, 1979).

The German existentialists Martin Heidegger (1889-1976) and Karl Jaspers (1883-1969) focused on human existence itself and our role in the world. In a sense, Heidegger trivialized the nature of God, equating God with little more than the greatest being in the world, but a being nonetheless (just as humans are).

Jaspers was not an atheist, but still his existential theory focused on the human journey toward a **freedom** that has meaning only when it reveals itself in union with God (Breisach, 1962; Lescoe, 1974). Heidegger considered individuals as beings who are all connected in **Being**, thus distinguishing between mere beings (including other animals) and the nature of truth or Being.

Only humans are capable of understanding this connection between all beings, and Heidegger referred to this discovery as **Dasein** ("being here," or existence). On one level, Dasein is common to all creatures, but the possibility of being aware of one's

connection to Being is uniquely human. For those who ask the big questions, Dasein can become authentic existence. This experience comes in the fullness of life, but only if one adopts the mode of existence known as **being-in-the-world**. Heidegger insisted that Dasein and being-in-the-world are equal.

Being-in-the-world is an odd concept, however, since Heidegger believed that Being can only arise from nothingness, and so we ourselves arise as **being-thrown-into-this-world**. Having been thrown into this mysterious world we wish to make it our own, but our desire for connection with Being leads to anxiety.

This anxiety cannot be overcome, because we are aware that we will die! Surprisingly, however, Heidegger considers death to be something positive. It is only because we are going to die that some of us strive to experience life fully.

If we can accept that death will come, and nothing will follow, we can be true to ourselves and live an authentic life (Breisach, 1962; Lundin, 1979).

Finally we come to the French existentialist Jean-Paul Sartre (1905-1980). Sartre was an extraordinary author and one of the most important philosophers of the twentieth century. He was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1964, but chose to reject it. More importantly for us,

however, is the fact that he carried existential philosophy directly into psychology, with books such as The Transcendence of the Ego (Sartre, 1937/1957) and a section entitled “Existential Psychoanalysis” in his extraordinary work Being and Nothingness (Sartre, 1943). Whereas Kierkegaard believed that man could never truly be one with God, and Heidegger trivialized

God, Sartre simply stated that God does not exist. But this is not inconsequential:

The Existentialist, on the contrary, thinks it very distressing that God does not exist, because all possibility of finding values in a heaven of ideas disappears along with Him; there can no longer be an a priori Good, since there is no infinite and perfect consciousness to think it. (pg. 459; Sartre, 1947/1996).

Unfortunately, many people do reject their unique consciousness and desire to be en-soi, just letting life happen around them. As the en-soi closes in around them, they begin to experience nausea, forlornness, anxiety, and despair. Herein lays the need for **existential psychoanalysis.**

Transpersonal Psychology

Transpersonal psychology is a field or school of thought in psychology centered on the spiritual aspects of human life. The term transpersonal psychology was first introduced in the 1960s by psychologists such as Abraham Maslow and Victor Frankl. This field utilizes psychological methods and theories to examine the spiritual subject matter.

Transpersonal psychology is a label for a type of psychological theory that embraces a wide variety of ideas that have nothing to do with religion and everything to do with the mind and behavior. Transpersonal psychology looks at the whole human experience.

While not all definitions of transpersonal psychology are exactly the same, researchers Lajoie and Shapiro have suggested that there are several key factors that figure into most explanations of this

field. These include spirituality, higher potential, transcendence and other states of consciousness.

In her 2009 book Eyes Wide Open: Cultivating Discernment on the Spiritual Path, Mariana Caplan wrote:

"Transpersonal psychologists attempt to integrate timeless wisdom with modern Western psychology and translate spiritual principles into scientifically grounded, contemporary language. Transpersonal psychology addresses the full spectrum of human psychospiritual development—from our deepest wounds and needs to the existential crisis of the human being, to the most transcendent capacities of our consciousness."

Instead of focusing on one school of psychological thought, or even just one discipline, transpersonal psychology seeks to incorporate a broad array of ideas, disciplines, and theories like philosophy, literature, health theories, art, social theory, cognition science, and different spiritual traditions, says Sofia University, formerly the Insitute of Transpersonal Psychology. Sofia University is a private institution that was initially founded to educate students in transpersonal psychology and continues to pass on transpersonal values.

Popularity

Although transpersonal psychology is not often explored in traditional psychology programs, there is increasing interest in this perspective and how theories and ideas from this field can be applied to different subfields of psychology. Mindfulness meditation, for example, is one element of transpersonal psychology that is becoming more popularly used.

Difference From Parapsychology

Transpersonal psychology is sometimes confused with parapsychology, although it is important to note that the two are not the same. While transpersonal psychology focuses on the spiritual side of human nature, parapsychology is concerned with the paranormal, such as psychic phenomena, including precognition, clairvoyance, near-death experiences, and psychokinesis.

Other theories: Rotter's Locus of Control

A scientific theory presents an explanation about some aspect of human behavior or the natural world which is supported through repeated testing and experiments. This means that scientists have collected evidence that supports the theory. Many different researchers have gathered the evidence that supports the theory.

As new evidence and research are added, a theory may then be refined, modified, or even rejected if it does not fit with the latest scientific findings. The overall strength of a scientific theory hinges on its ability to explain diverse phenomena.

Purpose of a Psychology Theory

In psychology, theories are used to provide a model for understanding human thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. Throughout psychology's history, a number of theories have been proposed to explain and predict various aspects of human behavior.

A psychological theory has two key components:

1. It must describe a behavior.

2. It must make predictions about future behaviors.

Each theory has helped contribute to our knowledge of the human mind and behavior. Some theories, such as classical conditioning, are still well accepted today.[2] Others, like Freud's theories, have not held up so well and have been mostly been replaced by new theories that better explain human development.

Different Types of Psychological Theories

There are many psychology theories, but most can be categorized as one of four key types.

Developmental Theories

Theories of development provide a framework for thinking about human growth, development, and learning. If you have ever wondered about what motivates human thought and behavior, understanding these theories can provide useful insight into individuals and society.

Developmental theories provide a set of guiding principles and concepts that describe and explain human development. Some developmental theories focus on the formation of a particular quality, such as Kohlberg's theory of moral development.[3] Other developmental theories focus on growth that happens throughout the lifespan, such as Erikson's theory of psychosocial development.

Grand Theories

Grand theories are those comprehensive ideas often proposed by major thinkers such as Sigmund Freud, Erik Erikson,[4] and Jean Piaget. Grand theories of development include psychoanalytic theory, learning theory, and cognitive theory.

These theories seek to explain much of human behavior, but are often considered outdated and incomplete in the face of modern research. Psychologists and researchers often use grand theories as a basis for exploration, but consider smaller theories and recent research as well.

Mini-Theories

Mini-theories describe a small, very particular aspect of development. A mini-theory might explain relatively narrow behaviors, such as how self-esteem is formed[5] or early childhood socialization. These theories are often rooted in the ideas established by grand theories, but they do not seek to describe and explain the whole of human behavior and growth.

Emergent Theories

Emergent theories are those that have been created relatively recently and are often formed by systematically combining various mini-theories. These theories draw on research and ideas from different disciplines but are not yet as broad or far-reaching as grand theories. The sociocultural theory proposed by Lev Vygotsky is a good example of an emergent theory of development.[6]

Examples of Psychology Theories

Some of the best-known theories of psychology focus on specific branches within psychology. Some of these include:

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral psychology, also known as behaviorism, is a theory of learning based on the idea that all behaviors are acquired through

conditioning. Advocated by famous psychologists such as John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner, behavioral theories dominated psychology during the early half of the twentieth century.[7] Today, behavioral techniques are still widely used by therapists to help clients learn new skills and behaviors.

Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories of psychology are focused on internal states, such as motivation, problem-solving, decision-making, thinking, and attention. Such theories strive to explain different mental processes including how the mind processes information.

Humanistic Theories

Humanistic psychology theories began to grow in popularity during the 1950s.[8] While earlier theories often focused on abnormal behavior and psychological problems, humanist theories instead emphasized the basic goodness of human beings. Some of the major humanist theorists included Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow.

Personality Theories

Personality psychology looks at the patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behavior that make a person unique. Some of the best-known theories in psychology are devoted to the subject of personality, including the trait theory of personality, the "big 5" theory of personality, and Erikson's theory of psychosocial development.[9]

Social Psychology Theories

Social psychology is focused on helping us understand and explain social behavior. Social theories are generally centered on specific

social phenomena, including group behavior,[10] prosocial behavior, social influence, love and much more.

Why Theories Matter

In your psychology courses, you may find yourself questioning how necessary it is to learn about different psychology theories, especially those that are considered inaccurate or outdated. However, all of these theories provide valuable information about the history of psychology, the progression of thought on a particular topic, and a deeper understanding of current theories.

Locus of Control

Julian Rotter developed a social learning theory that emphasized the role of the cognitive expectancy of reward in determining behavior. The major contribution of this theory to the psychology of personality was the proposal of a generalized cognitive expectancy that Rotter called locus of control. Individuals differ to the extent that they generally believe their own actions are related to personal outcomes. Those with an internal locus of control have a strong expectation that success or failure will result from their own efforts. Those with an external locus of control generally believe that success or failure is determined by fate, chance, or the will of others.

Currently, psychologists believe individuals can have different locus of control beliefs for different aspects of their life. For example, an individual could have an internal locus of control regarding social relationships and an external locus of control regarding his or her health. One domain that has been predictive of therapy outcome is the individual's locus of control beliefs concerning illness or health outcomes. Causal attributions also determine whether events are

believed to be stable or transient. For example, a stable causal attribution might be, “I did poorly on the algebra test because I have never been very good at math.” A transient attribution could be, “I did poorly on the algebra test because I did not get enough sleep last night.” Finally, causal attributions may be general (i.e., relevant to many experiences) or specific (i.e., applicable only to a single instance). For example, a stable causal attribution might be, “I didn’t dance well because I have never been coordinated.” A specific attribution could be, “I didn’t dance well because I have never liked dancing.”

Locus of control refers to the extent to which people feel that they have control over the events that influence their lives.

When you are dealing with a challenge in your life, do you feel that you have control over the outcome? Or do you believe that you are simply at the hands of outside forces?

If you believe that you have control over what happens, then you have what psychologists refer to as an internal locus of control. If you believe that you have no control over what happens and that external variables are to blame, then you have what is known as an external locus of control.

Your locus of control can influence not only how you respond to the events that happen in your life, but also your motivation to take action.

If you believe that you hold the keys to your fate, you are more likely to take action to change your situation when needed. If on the other hand, you believe that the outcome is out of your hands, you may be less likely to work toward change.

Internal vs. External Locus of Control

It is important to note that locus of control is a continuum. No one has a 100 percent external or internal locus of control. Instead, most people lie somewhere on the continuum between the two extremes.

These are characteristics of people with dominant internal or external locus of control.

Internal Locus of Control

- Are more likely to take responsibility for their actions
- Tend to be less influenced by the opinions of other people
- Often do better at tasks when they are allowed to work at their own pace
- Usually, have a strong sense of self-efficacy
- Tend to work hard to achieve the things they want
- Feel confident in the face of challenges
- Tend to be physically healthier
- Report being happier and more independent
- Often achieve greater success in the workplace

External Locus of Control

- Blame outside forces for their circumstances
- Often credit luck or chance for any successes
- Don't believe that they can change their situation through their own efforts

- Frequently feel hopeless or powerless in the face of difficult situations
- Are more prone to experiencing learned helplessness

Seligman's Explanatory styles

Over time the concept of attributional and explanatory styles evolved into a comprehensive theoretical framework, becoming a major research paradigm within psychology with a bearing on individuals' propensity towards optimism or **pessimism** and in turn, subsequent positive or negative mental states and outcomes.

In psychology, the term attribution has two predominant meanings. The first refers to explanations of behavior; the second refers to inferences (attributing blame, for example). "What the two meanings have in common is a process of assigning: in attribution as an explanation, a behavior is assigned to its cause; in attribution as inference, a quality or attribute is assigned to the agent on the basis of observed behavior." (Malle, 2011, p.17).

Similarly, Fiske & Taylor (1991, p. 23) suggested attribution theory "deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment."

Not to be confused with dispositional optimism – which sees optimism as a broad personality trait (Carver & Scheier, 2003) – the explanatory style is more concerned with immediate tendencies to view everyday events from a predominantly optimistic or pessimistic perspective.

According to Buchanan & Seligman (1995, p.1), "the general definition of explanatory style is quite simple, it is our tendency to offer similar explanations for different events." Additionally, explanatory styles can cause people to have disparate perceptions of the same event.

Put simply your attributional and explanatory style is the way in which you explain your circumstances to yourself.

A Look at the Psychology

People have a propensity to seek explanations for events. Whether it is within politics, science, philosophy, psychology or in everyday life, we want to know why things happen. Within psychology, this persistent drive to work out the 'why' compelled researchers to investigate why some individuals favor certain explanatory approaches over others (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995).

While human responses to uncontrollable events in laboratory settings were of interest, psychologists naturally became curious about real-world applications. This real-world focus was particularly in relation to how individuals make sense of their actions, how this impacts **emotions** (Buchanan & Seligman, 1995) and how we **regulate** these emotions (Gross, 2000)

Does an individual's explanatory characteristics determine their emotional state? Why do some individuals seem to give up and accept their fate in the face of **adversity** while some remain upbeat despite a string of 'failures'? Why do some appear powerless in the absence of control? Through asking such questions psychologists developed a number of hypotheses resulting in a plethora of studies concerning optimistic and pessimistic behavioral patterns and the potential long term effects on psychological health.

60 years of research into the ways individuals habitually explain events has cultivated a theory which is not only reliable but also measurable.

The Theory of Explanatory Styles

Grounded in scientific method, theories of psychology are ever-evolving as practitioners and researchers in the space constantly review, validate and propose new hypotheses. The theory of explanatory styles is no different; research in the field stretches back decades and continues to spur fresh publications as time goes on.

Heider (1958, as cited in Malle, 2011) initially distinguished between perceived internal and external causes for events. Subsequently, attributional theorist, Weiner (1972) drew a distinction between (temporally) stable versus unstable causes, with stable attributions for failure being seen to contribute towards poor or low levels of **motivation**. The third dimension of helplessness was first introduced by Kelley (1972) who focussed on ascriptions of global versus specific causes for adverse events.

The concept of explanatory style with three parameters (internality, stability, and globality) and the inclusion of a proposed distinction between optimistic and pessimistic attributional styles was hypothesized by Abramson, Semmel, Seligman, & Von Baeyer (1978).

Explanatory style as we know it was born primarily from two antecedents: The Learned Helplessness Model and The Reformulation of the Learned Helplessness Model.

Learned helplessness model

Learned helplessness proposes that control over the environment is a fundamental precursor of positivism for any organism. If an individual is repeatedly exposed to unavoidable painful or otherwise negative stimuli, they will come to expect that such events are uncontrollable and potentially develop a sense of hopelessness and depression as a result (Overmier & Seligman, 1967).

First observed in laboratory experiments in which animals were subjected to painful electric shocks with no opportunity for escape or avoidance, Maier & Seligman (1976) found that, after a period, animals would passively endure the pain.

The research suggested that helplessness is a learned behavior. When placed in a situation where there is no control over the outcome, the animals were conditioned to expect that future attempts to negate the shocks would be futile and therefore gave up trying. Hiroto & Seligman (1975) hypothesized that humans, like animals, would cease attempts to change their circumstances if it was deemed to be out of their control, highlighting the importance of how we attribute causality and control in mediating our mental state.

Pessimistic explanatory style

Pessimists have the opposite explanatory style. They personally blame themselves for bad events and perceive the root cause to be a fixed factor. When something good happens, they tend to attribute it to luck and see the cause as temporary.

The reformulation of the learned helplessness model of depression and the hopelessness model of depression predict that individuals who have a proclivity for pessimistic styles of explaining events experience failure more frequently than those with a more optimistic style in achievement-based scenarios.

Additionally, individuals with pessimistic explanatory styles are more likely to experience pervasive and chronic symptoms of helplessness when faced with uncontrollable negative events. Maladaptive thought patterns can fuel issues such as depression by creating a cycle of **negative thought** that perpetuates the problem (Eisner, 1995).

Depressive symptoms are most likely to occur when a vulnerable person experiences negative environmental circumstances (Schneider, Gruman, & Coutts, 2012). In this situation, a person is deemed vulnerable if they interpret the cause of negative events as something that cannot be changed (stable attribution) and affecting their whole life (global attribution). A person with these traits could be described as having a specific type of depression, called hopelessness depression (Schneider et al., 2012).

Seligman (1998) proposed that the explanatory style theory of optimism provides pessimistic people with an avenue to alter their pessimistic thinking patterns to be more optimistic, thus fostering mastery and **resilience**. For example, studies with middle-school children showed that retraining pessimistic thinking into optimistic thinking can significantly reduce the incidence of depression (Nolen-Hoeksema, Girgus, and Seligman, 1986).

Explanatory Style Dimensions & Examples

A person's attributional style describes how they explain life events to themselves. When someone forms an explanation it involves three dimensions which influence how we explain an outcome, namely internality versus externality, stability versus instability, and globality versus specificity (Peterson, 1991), easily remembered as

the three Ps: personalization, permanence, and pervasiveness, respectively.

Abraham, Seligman and Teasdale (1978) postulated that the way in which we attribute negative outcomes plays a role in mediating the negative psychological impact of adverse events.

Internal vs External (Personalization)

Is an outcome caused by factors within oneself or outside oneself? Was success or failure down to inherent abilities or failings or caused by favorable or impinging external conditions?

An individual with a propensity to blame failure on themselves and success on external factors shows more severe helplessness deficits such as passivity, depression, poor problem solving, low self-esteem, poor immune function, and even higher morbidity than a person who explains failure as being due to extraneous factors (Maier & Seligman, 1976; Peterson, 1988).

An internal attribution occurs when an individual blames a negative outcome to an inherent failing or a positive outcome to their own abilities. For example, “I failed the exam because I’m stupid” (pessimistic) or “I passed the exam because I worked hard” (optimistic).

An external attribution occurs when a negative or positive event is attributed to the situational context. For example, “I failed the exam because the room was too noisy” (optimistic) or “I passed the exam because I got the right questions” (pessimistic).

Examples of Explanatory Style

Michelle the optimist and Susan the pessimist complete an assignment for school:

Michelle the optimist receives an 'A' from her teacher. Michelle's optimistic explanatory style means she is more inclined to attribute her success to her own hard work and ability – she worked hard on the assignment and is good at this subject.

If Michelle had failed the assignment, she would likely have attributed this to external factors – she didn't do well because her neighbors were having a loud party. Michelle stills believe that she will do well in future assignments, the failure was not due to her lack of knowledge and will not impact future grades.

Susan the pessimist receives an 'A' for her assignment. Susan's pessimistic explanatory style means she is less inclined to attribute her success to her own skills – it was probably just luck or maybe her teacher was feeling generous, it certainly wasn't due to her ability in the subject.

If Susan had failed her assignment, she would most likely blame herself – she's just no good at these things. Susan knows that she will probably do badly in future assignments.

Alex the optimist and Michael the pessimist work hard on important proposals for work:

Alex the optimist meets with his directors and they love his idea. Alex's optimistic explanatory style means he is more likely to attribute this success to his own skills and ability – his skills are internal, stable, and global.

If Alex's employers had disliked his proposal, he would likely have attributed this to external factors – maybe they were preoccupied

with other things. Alex still expects future proposals to be successful because the proposal failed due to their temporary problem and not his lack of ability.

Michael the pessimist meets with his directors and they are impressed with his idea. Michael's pessimistic explanatory styles mean he is more likely to attribute this success to external factors – he was lucky on the day but this does not mean he will be successful in future endeavors.

If Michael's employers had not been impressed with his proposal he would be inclined to attribute this to internal factors – he's just no good at presentations. Michael knows that future attempts will be unsuccessful because the failure was due to his own lack of ability.

Martin Seligman and Explanatory Style

One name you may have come across in your inexhaustible journey along the road of positive psychology is Dr. **Martin Seligman**. Considered a founding father of positive psychology, former head of the American Psychological Association (APA), Dr. Seligman is a leading authority in the field and had a hand in developing early attribution style theories based on the learned helplessness model which later evolved into a more robust explanatory style.

Explanatory style is but the latest theory on how we as individuals explain our experiences to ourselves and has roots stretching back decades in terms of peer-reviewed literature.

The modern theory of explanatory style and the postulated role it plays in mediating between positive and negative mental states stemmed originally from the work of Overmier and Seligman (1967) in which they formulated the learned helplessness model.

During the study, rats were given electric shocks over which they had no control. It was found that rats learned that the outcome was independent of their responses and became passive, thereby learning helplessness.

However, the model didn't account for the potential of learned optimism or for individual differences in resilience when applied to humans, therefore, prompting a reformulation of the learned helplessness model by Abramson et al., (1978).

In their reformulated model of learned helplessness, the researches proposed that an individual's explanatory style influenced the level of optimism/pessimism with which they regarded future events.

Based on the findings, Seligman proposed three dimensions of explanatory style, neatly summarised by the three Ps:

Pervasiveness – Global / Specific: Whether or not the factors influencing an outcome are seen to be event-specific or globally applicable.
Permanence – Stable / Unstable: If the outcome is based on factors which are changeable (unstable) or perceived to be temporally fixed (stable).
Personalization – Internal / External: Relating to the level of personal control an individual feels they hold relating to an outcome.

Based on these dimensions, individuals can display an optimistic or pessimistic explanatory style.

This by no means encapsulates Dr. Seligman's total involvement in the spawning of our modern day theory of explanatory style and how it impacts on levels of optimism, pessimism and associated positive or negative emotional states.

Over the years, Seligman has refined and validated the theory as well as proposed several methods of measuring an individual's explanatory style, including the Attributional Style Questionnaire (Peterson, Semmel, von Baeyer, Abramson, Metalsky, & Seligman, 1982), the Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire (Kaslow, Tannenbaum, & Seligman, 1978) and the Content Analysis of Verbatim Explanations Technique (Peterson, Schulman, Castellon, & Seligman, 1992).

There has been an abundance of research in the area of attribution theory and explanatory style, but the drive to adapt and update theories means this remains an active area of investigation.

While much of the past research regarding interventions to an individual's explanatory style has focused on the link between a pessimistic explanatory style and depressive symptoms, the field of research into interventions which promote an optimistic explanatory style and any subsequent positive mental outcomes remains relatively wide-open (Fredrickson, 2001).

Methods of Measurement

How do we go about measuring explanatory styles? There are two main methods by which researchers assess attributional style: the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ: Peterson et al., 1982) and the Content Analysis of Verbatim Explanations (CAVE: Peterson et al., 1992).

Both measures collect information from participants regarding their attributions on the three dimensions. Determining precisely where the participant's attributions lie on each of these three dimensions is the goal of both the ASQ and the CAVE methods. The responses

allow researchers to make general conclusions about the overall attributional style of the participant.

One of the earliest and most commonly utilized assessment tools for adults is the attributional style questionnaire. Developed as a test to investigate and measure individual differences in habitual explanatory tendencies, a composite explanatory style score is formed by combining scores from the three dimensions (Peterson et al., 1993).

The ASQ presents individuals with hypothetical events and asked to imagine they involve them personally. In each case, they are asked questions related to perceived causes and the situation as a whole. Responses are then rated on a scale of 1-7 along the three dimensions of internality, stability, and globality (Dykema, Bergbower, Doctra & Peterson, 1996).

While the ASQ is an efficient method to obtain attributions for multiple events, as with many questionnaire-based studies it can potentially limit the quantity and demographics of participants. In response to this, the CAVE technique is a method that allows the researcher to analyze naturally occurring verbatim materials for explanatory style.

This technique has been successfully employed with adults particularly when a retrospective analysis of explanatory style is required. In this method, verbal or written causal effect statements by subjects are rated along the same permanent, personal and pervasive dimensions.

The CAVE technique allows the measurement of populations or individuals whose behavior is of interest but who cannot take questionnaires. Explanatory style can be assessed by blind, reliable

content analysis of verbatim explanations from the historical records. Subjects who are famous, dead, or otherwise unavailable can be studied as easily as anyone else so long as they have left some verbatim record whether it be transcripts, interviews, letters, diaries, or journals (Zullow, Oettingen, Peterson & Seligman, 1988).

Explanatory Style Test

By this point, you may think that you have a pretty good idea what your explanatory style is. To garner a deeper understanding you can take one of the many explanatory style tests online (often referred to as **learned optimism** tests), most of which are adapted from that of Dr. Martin Seligman.

But why is it important to know your explanatory style? This habitual way in which people explain causes has been used to predict depression, achievement, and health, with a pessimistic style predicting poor outcomes (Zullow, Oettingen, Peterson, Seligman, 1988).

According to Seligman (1990) learned helplessness has negative effects similar to depression – the belief that in the face of uncontrollable events, individual actions do not matter. Fortunately, there are ways we can unlearn this helplessness and actively learn optimism.

Remember when you complete an explanatory style test there are no right or wrong answers. The best way to recognize and change your style is to respond honestly.

The Authentic Happiness **test center** provides an excellent optimism test formulated by Dr. Martin Seligman. On completion of the 32 question test, you will be provided with a thorough

explanation and breakdown of your results in relation to permanence and pervasiveness. Seligman's website also provides a wealth of other tests and questionnaires ranging from life satisfaction to motivation and everything in between.

Completing this 48 question **test** by Stanford University should take around 15 minutes. On completion, you will be given scores based on positive and negative permanence, pervasiveness, personalization, and a cumulative overall score.

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Kolhberg's theory of moral development states that we progress through three levels of moral thinking that build on our cognitive development.

KEY POINTS

-
    - **Lawrence Kohlberg** expanded on the earlier work of **cognitive** theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children, which he believed follows a series of stages.
    - Kohlberg defined three levels of moral development: preconventional, conventional, and postconventional. Each level has two distinct stages.
    - During the preconventional level, a child's sense of **morality** is externally controlled. Children accept and believe the rules of **authority** figures, such as parents

and teachers, and they judge an action based on its consequences.

- During the conventional level, an individual's sense of morality is tied to personal and societal relationships. Children continue to accept the rules of authority figures, but this is now because they believe that this is necessary to ensure positive relationships and societal order.
- During the postconventional level, a person's sense of morality is defined in terms of **more** abstract principles and values. People now believe that some laws are unjust and should be changed or eliminated.
- Kohlberg's **theory** has been criticized for its cultural and gendered **bias** toward white, upper-class men and boys. It also fails to account for inconsistencies within moral judgments.

Lawrence Kohlberg expanded on the earlier work of cognitive theorist Jean Piaget to explain the moral development of children. Kohlberg believed that moral development, like **cognitive development**, follows a series of stages. He used the idea of moral dilemmas—stories that present conflicting ideas about two moral values—to teach 10 to 16 year-old boys about morality and values. The best known moral dilemma created by Kohlberg is the "Heinz" dilemma, which discusses the idea of obeying the law versus saving a life. Kohlberg emphasized that it is the way an individual **reasons** about a dilemma that determines positive moral development.

After presenting people with various moral dilemmas, Kohlberg reviewed people's responses and placed them in different stages of moral reasoning.

Kohlberg's stages of moral development

Kohlberg identified three levels of moral reasoning: pre-conventional, conventional, and post-conventional. Each level is associated with increasingly complex stages of moral development.

According to Kohlberg, an individual progresses from the capacity for pre-conventional morality (before age 9) to the capacity for conventional morality (early adolescence), and toward attaining post-conventional morality (once Piaget's idea of formal operational thought is attained), which only a few fully achieve. Each level of morality contains two stages, which provide the basis for moral development in various contexts.

Level 1. Preconventional Morality

The earliest stages of moral development, obedience and punishment, are especially common in young children, but adults are also capable of expressing this type of reasoning. At this stage, Kohlberg says, people see rules as fixed and absolute.[6] Obeying the rules is important because it is a means to avoid punishment.

At the individualism and exchange stage of moral development, children account for individual points of view and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs. In the Heinz dilemma, children argued that the best course of action was the choice that

best served Heinz's needs. Reciprocity is possible at this point in moral development, but only if it serves one's own interests.

Level 2. Conventional Morality

Often referred to as the "good boy-good girl" orientation, the stage of the interpersonal relationship of moral development is focused on living up to social expectations and roles.[6] There is an emphasis on conformity, being "nice," and consideration of how choices influence relationships.

This stage is focused on maintaining social order. At this stage of moral development, people begin to consider society as a whole when making judgments. The focus is on maintaining law and order by following the rules, doing one's duty, and respecting authority.

Level 3. Postconventional Morality

The ideas of a social contract and individual rights cause people in the next stage to begin to account for the differing values, opinions, and beliefs of other people.[6] Rules of law are important for maintaining a society, but members of the society should agree upon these standards.

Kohlberg's final level of moral reasoning is based on universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules.

Criticisms

Kohlberg's theory is concerned with moral thinking, but there is a big difference between knowing what we ought to do versus our actual actions. Moral reasoning, therefore, may not lead to moral

behavior. This is just one of the many criticisms of Kohlberg's theory.

Critics have pointed out that Kohlberg's theory of moral development overemphasizes the concept of justice when making moral choices. Factors such as compassion, caring, and other interpersonal feelings may play an important part in moral reasoning.[7]

Does Kohlberg's theory overemphasize Western philosophy? Individualist cultures emphasize personal rights, while collectivist cultures stress the importance of society and community. Eastern, collectivist cultures may have different moral outlooks that Kohlberg's theory does not take into account.

Were Kohlberg's dilemma's applicable? Most of his subjects were children under the age of 16 who obviously had no experience with marriage. The Heinz dilemma may have been too abstract for these children to understand, and a scenario more applicable to their everyday concerns might have led to different results.

Kohlberg's critics, including Carol Gilligan, have suggested that Kohlberg's theory was gender-biased since all of the subjects in his sample were male.[8] Kohlberg believed that women tended to remain at the third level of moral development because they place a stronger emphasis on things such as social relationships and the welfare of others.

Gilligan instead suggested that Kohlberg's theory overemphasizes concepts such as justice and does not adequately address moral reasoning founded on the principles and ethics of caring and concern for others.

What is Basic motivational concepts: Instincts, Needs, Drives, Arousal, Incentives, Motivational Cycle. Approaches to the study of motivation: Psychoanalytical, Ethological, S-R Cognitive, Humanistic?

Basic motivational concepts: Instincts, Needs, Drives, Arousal, Incentives, Motivational Cycle. Approaches to the study of motivation: Psychoanalytical, Ethological, S-R Cognitive, Humanistic

Basic motivational concepts: Instincts, Needs, Drives, Arousal, Incentives, Motivational Cycle

Concept of Motivation:

The term motivation is derived from the word 'motive". The word 'motive' as a noun means an objective, as a verb this word means moving into action. Therefore, motives are forces which induce people to act in a way, so as to ensure the fulfillment of a particular human need at a time. Behind every human action there is a motive. Therefore, management must provide motives to people to make them work for the organization.

Motivation may be defined as a planned managerial process, which stimulates people to work to the best of their capabilities, by providing them with motives, which are based on their unfulfilled needs.

“Motivation means a process of stimulating people to action to accomplish desired goods.” —William G. Scott

“Motivation is the process of attempting to influence others to do your will through the possibility of gain or reward.” — Flippo

Motivation is, in fact, pressing the right button to get the desired human behaviour.

Motivation is no doubt an essential ingredient of any Organisation. It is the psychological technique which really executes the plans and policies through the efforts of others.

Following are the outstanding Features of the concept of motivation:

1. Motivation is a personal and internal feeling:

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon which generates within an individual.

2. Motivation is need based:

If there are no needs of an individual, the process of motivation fails. It is a behavioural concept that directs human behaviour towards certain goals.

3. Motivation is a continuous process:

Because human wants are unlimited, therefore motivation is an ongoing process.

4. Motivation may be positive or negative:

A positive motivation promotes incentives to people while a negative motivation threatens the enforcement of disincentives.

5. Motivation is a planned process:

People differ in their approach, to respond to the process of motivation; as no two individuals could be motivated in an exactly similar manner. Accordingly, motivation is a psychological concept and a complex process.

6. Motivation is different from job satisfaction:

The process of motivation is illustrated in the figure given below:

Figure 15.1 shows an employee has a need or urge for promotion to a higher position. If this need is strong, the employee will fix his goal and find alternatives to reach the goal.

The might have two alternatives, namely,

(i) hard work and

(ii) enhancement of qualification (e.g., getting MBA) and hard work.

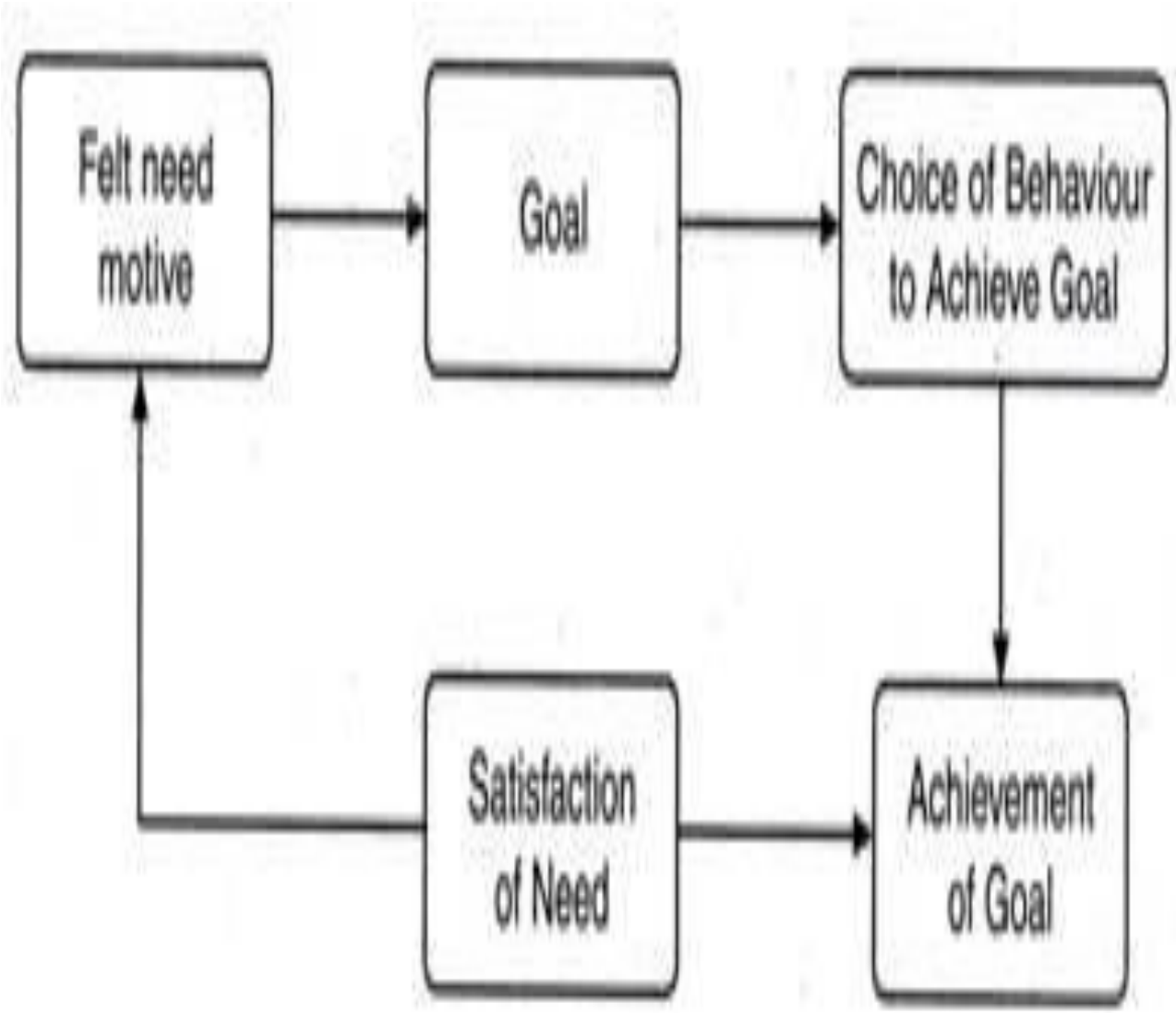


Fig. 15.1 The Process of Motivation

He might choose the second alternative and succeed in getting promotion (goal achievement) thus, his need for promotion would be satisfied and he would start again for the satisfaction of a new need.

Significance/Importance of Motivation:

Motivation is an integral part of the process of direction.

While directing his subordinate, a manager must create and sustain in them the desire to work for the specified objectives:

1. High Efficiency:

A good motivational system releases the immense untapped reservoirs of physical and mental capabilities. A number of studies have shown that motivation plays a crucial role in determining the level of performance. “Poorly motivated people can nullify the soundest organisation.” said Allen.

By satisfying human needs motivation helps in increasing productivity. Better utilisation of resources lowers cost of operations. Motivation is always goal directed. Therefore, higher the level of motivation, greater is the degree of goal accomplishment.

2. Better Image:

A firm that provides opportunities for financial and personal advancement has a better image in the employment market. People prefer to work for an enterprise because of opportunity for development, and sympathetic outlook. This helps in attracting qualified personnel and simplifies the staffing function.

3. Facilitates Change:

Effective motivation helps to overcome resistance to change and negative attitude on the part of employees like restriction of output. Satisfied workers take interest in new organisational goals and are more receptive to changes that management wants to introduce in order to improve efficiency of operations.

4. Human Relations:

Effective motivation creates job satisfaction which results in cordial relations between employer and employees. Industrial disputes, labour absenteeism and turnover are reduced with consequent benefits. Motivation helps to solve the central problem of management, i.e., effective use of human resources. Without motivation the workers may not put their best efforts and may seek satisfaction of their needs outside the organisation.

The success of any organisation depends upon the optimum utilisation of resources. The utilisation of physical resources depends upon the ability to work and the willingness to work of the employees. In practice, ability is not the problem but necessary will to work is lacking. Motivation is the main tool for building such a will. It is for this reason that Rensis Likert said, “Motivation is the core of management.” It is the key to management in action.

Motivation: Need for Achievement

Have you ever met people who are always interested in improving themselves (and actually others as well), to become faster, smarter and more productive than ever? It seems they cannot stop developing themselves to be better; they are eager for achievements and enhancements. To tell you the truth, I also share this drive and would like to provide a "how-to" that can help readers motivate and manage these achievers, as they are called in the Need Theory model, more efficiently and less stressfully.

What Motivates People with the Need for Achievement **How to Deal with This Drive**

Be better than yourself • They develop themselves; • May compare past and current achievements; • Winning is more important than participating;	• Provide a clear plan/path for professional growth; • Define how the person can build his/her career within the project/program; • Give an opportunity for them to attend conferences and trainings; • Set clear goals and meaningful KPIs;
Be better than others • Compare their results to others; • Show interest in how others are progressing; • Don't like when others make fun of them	• Share what the evaluation criteria is for team members; • Explain why someone is/is not getting something; • Ensure that the bonuses and appraisal systems are transparent; • Communicate openly about the achievements of team members;
Challenging tasks • The task should be difficult, but achievable • Can do monotonous work,	• Clarify how the task impacts the project or program; • Make sure the person is clear on why it is important that they are doing the task;

when it's a part of an interesting endeavor; • Prefer to fulfill tasks step by step;	• Check that the task corresponds to the person's skills;
A stable and long-term career • Interested in becoming a good professional in one area, rather than a jack-of-all-trades	• Provide opportunities to deepen their knowledge; • Confirm that the project/program is stable enough for long-term career planning

Motivation: Need for Affiliation

Sometimes we have to make hard choices and decide: what is more important? Is it to A. get the desired result, or B. maintain good relationships with your colleagues? For people with a strong need for achievement, the "result" answer is obvious. But for the ones with a need for affiliation, relations usually matter more. Let's see what else motivates people with this drive.

What Motivates People with the Need for Affiliation	How to Deal with This Drive
Find new friends	Allow them to contact new people from other teams and the client side. They are good communicators and are able to set up connections between people;
• The possibility to meet	

new people; • Can easily start conversation with strangers; • Are open-minded and easy-going.	• Invite to kick-off meetings; • Involve them in onboarding new team members;
Stay in touch with friends • Enjoy calling and writing to people they know; • Like showing they care and when others care about them; • Prefer to work with friends more than with experts; • Have lots of friends in different areas and companies.	• Engage in mentoring and coaching activities; • Make sure they have enough interactions with other project/team members (they like face-to-face meetings, calls and correspondence – the more communication options they have, the happier they feel); • Show empathy and interest; • Allow them to assist other team members when they are able;
Spend time together with people • Know how to have fun and inspire people	• Assign them tasks that require good collaboration skills; • Can experience stress in an unfriendly/competitive atmosphere;

around them;

- Are able to provide support and encouragement;
- Loyal to different points of view;
- Appreciate teamwork;
- Don't mind doing routine/monotonous work;
- Can easily practice the Management 3.0 style (even without knowing what it is).

- Try to avoid involving them in confrontations/conflict, as they can feel discomfort because of it;
- Be careful with negative feedback, especially when sharing it publically – they can take it personally and become deeply hurt;
- Encourage them to share their ideas and contribute to team activities, as they will be grateful for this;
- Show appreciation for their good results at work, as they will be glad to hear "thank you";
- Involve them in social and volunteering activities, as they can bring lots of value.

Interesting fact: parents with prominent affiliation drives usually raise children with the need for achievement drive.

Motivation: Need for Power

Do you know people who often use the following words: influence, control, status, struggle, discipline, subordination and leadership? These kinds of people also find pleasure in vertical career development. They like to manage others and they are driven by power.

What Motivates People with the Need for Power	How to Deal with This Drive
Control	
• Opportunities to exude control over other people; • Given power to delegate tasks; • Enjoy doing multiple activities at once; • Like to know what is going on around them; • Need to keep track of their own and others' activities;	• Provide them with opportunities to manage others; • "Career development" to them means increasing the number of people they manage; • Give them some freedom in decision-making; • Assign multiple tasks; • Don't assign tasks directly to their subordinates; • Consult them and ask for advice;
Influence	
• Need to see the reactions to their ideas or actions;	• Allow them to influence you and show your reaction; • Direct their power games into

- Care about how other people perceive them;
- Can find pleasure in influencing the emotions of others;
- Enjoy intrigues, power games.

Leadership

- Enjoy being followed;
- Are pleased when praised;
- Glad to lead others;
- Like public speaking.

Status recognition

 Social success means a lot to them;

 Collect status artifacts;

 Count their victories;

 Like to be engaged in volunteering activities.

constructive areas/context;

- Develop your own management style, soft and hard skills – they need strong leaders around them;
- Pay attention to them, and don't ignore their ideas/actions;
- Delegate them to give presentations to the public;
- Publicly announce their successes;
- Set community creation tasks for them;
- Allow them to train and mentor employees;
- Make sure their position has the corresponding status environment;
- Provide them opportunities to join corporative clubs, non-public communities, and other special events.

Motivation and Drive

A person's motivation is a combination of desire and energy directed at achieving a goal. It is the cause of action. Influencing someone's motivation means getting them to want to do what you know must be done. (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973)

A person's motivation depends upon two things:

- **The strength of certain needs.** For example, you are hungry, but you must have a task completed by a nearing deadline. If you are starving you will eat. If you are slightly hungry you will finish the task at hand.
- **The perception that taking a certain action will help satisfy those needs.** For example, you have two burning needs — the desire to complete the task and the desire to go to lunch. Your perception of how you view those two needs will determine which one takes priority. If you believe that you could be fired for not completing the task, you will probably put off lunch and complete the task. If you believe that you will not get into trouble or finish the task in time, then you will likely go to lunch.

Forces, such as beliefs, values, interests, fear, and worthy causes can motivate people. Some of these forces are internal, such as needs, interests, and beliefs. Others are external, such as danger, the environment, or pressure from a loved one. There is no simple formula for motivation — you must keep a open viewpoint on human nature.

There is a complex array of forces steering the direction of each person and these forces cannot always be seen or studied. In addition, if the same forces are steering two different people, each one may act differently. Knowing that each person may react to different needs will guide your decisions and actions in certain situations.

Guidelines for Motivation

As a leader you have the power to influence motivation. The following guidelines form a basic view of motivation (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973). They will help guide your decision making process:

Allow the needs of your team to coincide with the needs of your organization

Nearly everyone is influenced by the needs for job security, promotion, raises, and approval of their peers and leaders. Internal forces, such as values, morals, and ethics, also influence them. Likewise, the organization needs good people in a wide variety of jobs.

Ensure that your team is trained, encouraged, and has opportunities to advance. Also, ensure that the way you conduct business has the same values, moral, and ethic principles that you seek in others. If you conduct business in a dishonest manner, your team will be dishonest to you; for that will be the kind of people that you will attract.

Reward good behavior

Although a certificate, letter, or a thank you may seem small and insignificant, they can be powerful motivators. The reward should be

specific and prompt. Do not say something general, such as “for doing a good job,” rather you should cite the specific action that made you believe it was indeed a good job.

Set the example

You must be the role model that you want others to grow into. As Mahatma Gandhi said, “We must become the change we want to see.”

Develop morale and esprit de corps

Morale is the mental, emotional, and spiritual state of a person. Almost everything you do will have an impact on your organization. You should always be aware how your actions and decisions might affect it.

Drive

This lively RSA Animate, based on Daniel Pink's book, Drive: The Surprising Truth About What Motivates Us, illustrates some of the hidden truths behind what really motivates us:

The most common form of culture in modern organizations is often referred to as informed acquiescence. It is rule-based in that the workers learn the rules and agree to abide by them. Rules normally work their way from the top-down in a fairly controllable and predictable manner. Thus, a large organization can become management-orientated that often leads to bureaucracy. And it is this bureaucracy that tends to slow things down.

However, many of the leading organizations are becoming more value-based self-governance in that rather than the workforce being governed by “should,” they act upon “can” (Seidman, 2007).

They have a small core set of rules that are valued by the workforce. Rather then being motivated to do better, they are inspired. Motivation is controlled somewhat by outside factors, while inspire (similar to “esprit”) is more inside the individual's soul or spirit and is usually considered the greatest motivator. Being freed from the crippling pace of bureaucracy, value-based companies operate and move faster.

Probably no organization is based solely on one or the other, but rather someplace on a continuum, with the better and faster ones being more value-based. Nordstrom is one good example of an organization that leans heavily towards value-based self-governance. For example, Nordstrom's rule is to “Use good judgment in all situations.” Employees are encouraged to ask questions from anyone because they believe that all information should be accessible to everyone, regardless of seniority or status.

Motivation as arousal

A second biological approach to the study of human motivation has been the study of mechanisms that change the arousal level of the organism. Early research on this topic emphasized the essential equivalency of changes in arousal, changes in emotion, and changes in motivation. It was proposed that emotional expressions and the motivation of behaviour are the observable manifestations of changes in arousal level.

One of the earliest arousal theories suggested that one’s perception of emotion depends upon the bodily responses the individual makes to a specific, arousing situation. This theory became known as the James-Lange theory of emotion after the two

researchers, William James and the Danish physician Carl Lange, who independently proposed it in 1884 and 1885 respectively.

The theory argued, for example, that experiencing a dangerous event such as an automobile accident leads to bodily changes such as increased breathing and heart rate, increased adrenaline output, and so forth. These changes are detected by the brain and the emotion appropriate to the situation is experienced. In the example of the automobile accident, fear might be experienced as a result of these bodily changes.

The Cannon-Bard theory

Walter B. Cannon, a Harvard physiologist, questioned the James-Lange theory on the basis of a number of observations; he noted that the feedback from bodily changes can be eliminated without eliminating emotion; that the bodily changes associated with many quite different emotional states are similar, making it unlikely that these changes serve to produce particular emotions; that the organs supposedly providing the feedback to the brain concerning these bodily changes are not very sensitive; and that these bodily changes occur too slowly to account for experienced emotions.

Cannon and a colleague, Philip Bard, proposed an alternative arousal theory, subsequently known as the Cannon-Bard theory. According to this approach, the experience of an event, such as the automobile accident mentioned earlier, leads to the simultaneous determination of emotion and changes to the body. The brain, upon receiving information from the senses, interprets an event as emotional while at the same time preparing the body to deal with the new situation.

Sleep processes and stress reactions

Research on arousal mechanisms of motivation has furthered understanding of both sleep processes and stress reactions. In the case of sleep, arousal levels generally seem lower than during waking; however, during one stage of sleep arousal levels appear highly similar to those in the waking state. Sleep itself may be considered a motivational state. The biological motivation to sleep can become so overpowering that individuals can fall asleep while driving an automobile or while engaged in dangerous tasks.

Five stages of sleep have been defined using the electroencephalograph (EEG). The EEG records the electrical activity of neurons in the outermost portion of the brain known as the cerebral cortex.

According to EEG-based findings, everyone cycles through five stages during sleep. A complete cycle averages approximately 90 minutes. The two most interesting stages of sleep from a motivational point of view are stages 4 and 5.

Stage 4 represents the deepest sleep in that the brain-wave activity as measured by the EEG is farthest from the activity seen when a person is awake. The brain-wave pattern is characterized by delta waves, which are large, irregular, and slow; breathing, heart rate, and blood pressure are also reduced. Because the overall activity of the individual in stage 4 is greatly reduced, it has been suggested by some researchers that stage 4 (and perhaps also stage 3)

sleep serves a restorative function. However, a potential problem with such an explanation is that stage 4 sleep drops dramatically after age 30 and may be entirely absent in some people aged 50 or over who nevertheless appear to be perfectly healthy. Additionally, studies have shown that in the typical individual physical exhaustion

does not lead to increases in stage 4 sleep as might be expected if it were serving a restorative function. The purpose of stage 4 sleep remains unknown.

Stage 5 sleep is also known as rapid eye movement (REM) sleep because during this stage the eyes begin to move rapidly under the eyelids. Interest in stage 5 sleep has been considerable since it was discovered that most, if not all, dreaming occurs during this stage. During stage 5 sleep the EEG pattern of brain-wave activity appears very similar to the brain-wave activity of an awake, alert person. Breathing, heart rate, and blood pressure rise from the low levels observed during stage 4 and can fluctuate rapidly.

In addition to eye movements, fast, small, and irregular brain waves, and autonomic changes indicative of an aroused state, individuals in stage 5 sleep display a large loss in skeletal muscle tone that amounts to a temporary paralysis. Researchers have suggested that the muscle paralysis prevents the “acting out” of our dreams.

Another aspect of arousal processes concerns the high levels of arousal leading to a triggering of the stress reaction. The stress reaction can be triggered by a challenge to the physical integrity of the body, or it can occur as a result of some psychological challenge. Furthermore, the body appears to react in a similar fashion regardless of whether the demands made upon it are physical or psychological.

Hans Selye, a Viennese-born Canadian medical researcher, showed that stressors trigger a chain of processes that begins with what is called the alarm reaction, may proceed to a second stage called the stage of resistance, and, if the stressor has still not been removed, may lead to a final stage called exhaustion.

Biological monitoring systems

For some basic motives such as hunger, thirst, and sex, a biological approach emphasizing regulatory mechanisms has dominated the thinking of researchers. The fundamental premise has been that such basic motives are homeostatically regulated—that is, the nervous system monitors levels of energy, fluid balance, and hormone production (in the case of sex) and alters motivation when these levels deviate too far from some optimum level.

Hunger

The question of why we eat when we do appears to involve two separate mechanisms. The first mechanism, typically called short-term regulation, attempts to take in sufficient energy to balance what is being expended. It is usually assumed that time between meals and meal size are determined by this short-term mechanism. A second mechanism, called long-term regulation, is directed toward storing away sufficient energy for possible later use should the short-term mechanism fail to adequately replenish energy expended. Energy for long-term use is stored in the form of fat within the fat cells of the body. Short-term regulation processes have generally been assumed to monitor the blood glucose (blood sugar) level and to initiate eating when this level falls below some predetermined optimum. Long-term regulation processes appear to monitor fat levels and to initiate eating when fat stores fall below some optimal level.

Thirst

Processes similar to the physiological control mechanisms of hunger are thought to regulate thirst motivation and sexual behaviour. In the case of thirst, the desire to drink appears to be

initiated by fluid loss from within specialized brain cells known as osmoreceptors and also from fluid loss from the area outside of cells, such as from bleeding. Thirst, therefore, would seem to be triggered by mechanisms controlling the fluid integrity both within and around the cells of the body. Cells within the hypothalamus also seem to be involved in the control of thirst motivation.

Sexual motivation

In most animals sexual motivation is under stricter hormonal control than is the case in humans. The female of most species is not interested in sexual behaviour until cyclic hormonal changes produce estrus. The male, however, is usually sexually ready but is prevented from engaging in sexual behaviour by the female until estrus occurs. Research indicates that the anterior (front) portion of the hypothalamus is involved with the estrous cycle of female mammals; it has been demonstrated that destruction of these hypothalamus cells eliminates estrus. Similarly, destruction of the anterior region of the hypothalamus reduces or eliminates sexual behaviour in male rats.

According to the arousal theory of motivation, each person has a unique arousal level that is right for them. When our arousal levels drop below these personalized optimal levels, we seek some sort of stimulation to elevate them.

For example, if our levels drop too low we might seek stimulation by going out to a nightclub with friends. If these levels become too elevated and we become overstimulated, we might be motivated to select a relaxing activity such as going for a walk or taking a nap.

One of the key assumptions of the arousal theory is that we are motivated to pursue actions that help us maintain an ideal balance.

When we become overly aroused, we seek soothing activities that help calm and relax us. If we become bored, we head in search of more invigorating activities that will energize and arouse us. It's all about striking the right balance, but that balance is unique to each individual.

Arousal theory shares some commonalities with drive-reduction theory. But instead of focusing on reducing tension, arousal theory suggests that we are motivated to maintain an ideal level of arousal.

Arousal Levels Are Highly Individual

Optimal arousal levels vary from one individual to the next. There are many factors that might influence each person's optimal arousal levels, including genetics, experience, and current mood.

Your arousal preferences, in general, may be specified by your genetic makeup, but environmental factors can also play a role in how you are feeling at any given moment. One person may have very low arousal needs while another individual might require very high levels.

Behavior Is Motivated by Arousal Levels

The person with low arousal needs might be motivated to pursue simple activities such as crocheting or watching a movie in order to maintain their arousal levels. The individual with high arousal needs, on the other hand, might be motivated to seek risky or thrilling activities such as motorcycle racing or skydiving in order to maintain his or her ideal levels.

If you need to raise your arousal levels, you might:

- Engage in physical activity

- Socialize with friends
- Try something new and exciting
- Watch an action-packed movie

If you need to lower your arousal levels, you might:

- Enjoy a relaxing hobby
- Read a book
- Take a bath
- Take a nap

No matter what your arousal needs are, you will be motivated to act in order to maintain these levels. If you need more arousal, you will pursue actions designed to raise those levels. If you need less, you will seek out ways to calm down and relax.

Arousal Influences Performance

One of the assertions of the arousal theory of motivation is that our levels of arousal can influence our performance. But again, balance is key.

Higher arousal levels can sometimes help us perform better, but it can also impair performance if arousal levels are too high.

This concept is commonly referred to as the Yerkes-Dodson Law. The law states that increased levels of arousal will improve performance, but only up until the optimum arousal level is reached. At that point, performance begins to suffer as arousal levels increase. Additionally, if you're doing a complex task, high or low

levels of arousal will affect you more than if you're doing something simple.

Incentive Motivation Theory

The incentive theory of motivation suggests that people are motivated by a drive for incentives and reinforcement. It also proposes that people behave in a way that they believe will result in a reward and avoid actions that may entail punishment.

Employees might behave differently in similar situations depending on the incentives available. For example, an employee might work harder on a project to earn a good review or to avoid a poor review than if they don't receive a review at all. Their motivation is their desire to receive a reward or avoid punishment via a performance review at the end of the project.

The value of the same incentive may change depending on the time and circumstance. People may value similar incentives differently. Psychological and social factors can have a role in determining which people have a motivation for different incentives. Incentives only work as motivational tools if individuals place value on the reward they will receive for their actions.

Incentives in the workplace, as in other facets of life, can also be positive or negative:

- **Positive incentives:** Provide positive assurance that an employee will receive something they desire in exchange for doing their work well. Examples of positive incentives include recognition, promotions, raises and so forth.

- **Negative incentives:** Correct mistakes or discourage certain behaviors. Negative incentives include reprimands, demotions, pay decreases and other kinds of penalties.

Different workplace incentives

Monetary and non-monetary are the two main categories of workplace incentives. Monetary incentives are straightforward—many employees work harder if they have a chance to receive a raise or have a higher salary. Financial compensation can be psychologically rewarding, but it also helps employees to feel secure within the company and their roles.

Non-monetary incentives include a range of types:

- Job security
- Recognition
- Professional development
- Promotion

Job security

Job security is one form of non-monetary incentive that can motivate people at work. For example, receiving tenure or ending a probationary period can make someone feel more secure and motivated to contribute to the company or organization. Once they feel like their contributions matter, they may work harder to help the business excel. You can reinforce job security by giving annual performance reviews in which you offer positive reinforcement and constructive feedback.

Recognition

Recognition is also an important form of non-monetary workplace incentives. Employers may offer rewards for hard work, achieving a goal or working with the company for so many years. In many cases, companies offer a monetary reward along with recognition. An employee of the month award is a common recognition that many companies use. Another type of small recognition could include praising an employee during a team meeting. Publicly praising an employee for their hard work can also show other team members the work ethic they should strive to meet.

Professional development

Professional development opportunities can also provide incentives to employees. Developing their skills can be an important motivator. Employers may offer tuition reimbursement, send employees to conferences or seminars or develop an in-house training program for developing skills. You could also begin a shadowing program in which employees in your department work with colleagues in another area of the company to learn more about the organizational process.

Promotion

The opportunity for promotion is an important workplace motivator. Promotions offer the opportunity for growth and advancement and can be very satisfying and motivating. They also help employees excel in their professional development. When an employee receives a promotion, they usually have a higher sense of job security. Employees usually receive promotions at the same time as a raise.

Applying the incentive theory of motivation in your career

Understanding how your core values affect your motivations can help you excel in your career. Core values are the ideals, beliefs and personal ethics that guide your decision-making process. Determining what your core values are can help you better understand what kinds of incentives you respond best to. You can then use those incentives to motivate yourself into achieving your professional goals. Understanding your core values can also help you find jobs and companies that align more closely with your ideals, which will make you happier and more productive at work.

To identify your core values, consider the following:

- Your favorite part about your current job
- The aspects of your job that make you happiest
- What you look forward to during your workday

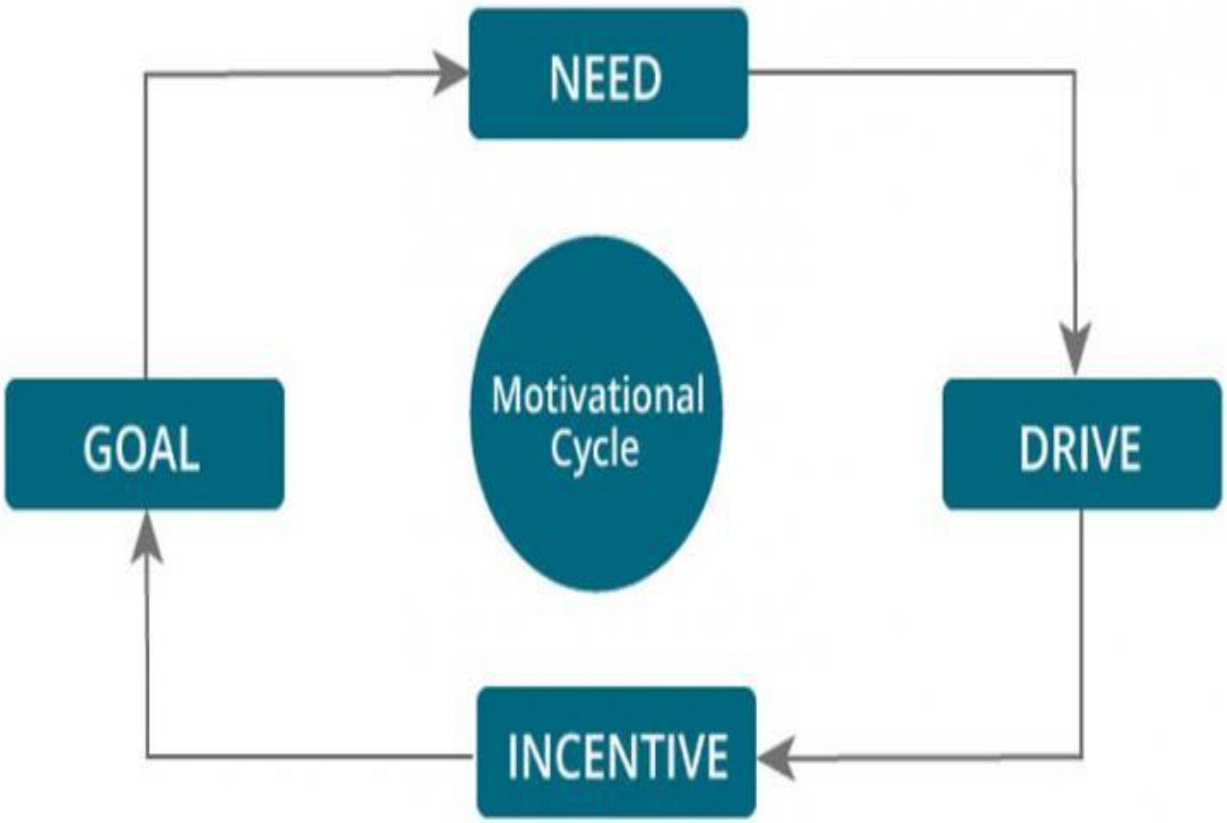
By identifying your core values, you can make adjustments in your work life in response. For example, if you find that you are motivated by non-monetary incentives, you could ask your manager for a promotion or about opportunities offered by the company for professional development.

Motivational Cycle

Motivation cycle is a transition of states within an organism that propels the organism toward the satisfaction of a particular need, where motivation itself is considered a hypothesized state. Psychologists use the concept of need to describe the motivational properties of behavior.

The state of motivation is further comprised of four different states, which takes place in an organism to drive him towards each action. Each action is first initiated because of a particular need. The need drives the person into taking actions. Positive results, caused due to the actions, further acts as an incentive motivating a person towards the goal. But the individual can never stop after achieving a certain goal, and this phenomenon continues on and on. This phenomenon has been termed as Motivational Cycle.

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Need

A need is lack or deficit of some necessity. It's a state of physical deprivation that causes tension within an organism. The tension caused when the organism is deprived of basic necessities of life as food, water, and sleep, causes the internal environment of an organism to be imbalanced. The imbalance caused by the need arouses the organism to maintain its balance. For any goal directed behavior, need is the first condition or stimulating factor.

Drive

Need leads to drive, which is the second step towards achieving goal. Drive can be defined as the state of tension or arousal produced by need. The drive can also be considered as the original source of energy that activates an organism. For instance, when an organism is hungry and/or thirsty, the organism seeks to reduce this drive by eating and/or drinking.

Drive acts as a strong persistent stimulus to push an organism towards its goal. It is the state of heightened tension leading to restless activity and preparatory behavior.

Incentive

The object of the environment that activates, directs, and maintains behavior is called incentive. It can be anything as long as it has either positive or negative value in motivating behavior.

The incentive theory rests on the assumption that the behaving organism is well aware of his actions and the consequences received as a result. The theory also understands incentives as the motivation, which a person has to achieve any particular goal object. The motivated behavior is directed towards incentive and

getting closer to the incentive provides satisfaction of the aroused drive.

For example: behavior like eating food is an incentive that reduces the drive of the person caused by the need to fulfill his hunger. The reduction of behavior then cuts off and restores balance in an organism.

According to Hilgard,

"The incentive is something in the external environment that satisfies the need and thus reduces the drive through consummative activity.,

Goal

The reduction of tension in the body can be considered as the goal of any motivated behavior. Let's go back to the example of a hungry man. A hungry man eats food, and his body restores to a balanced condition. This then reduces the tension. This reduction of tension as a result of an energized activity is called goal. Once the goal has been completed, the organism is again ready for another goal-motivated behavior.

Goals might be both positive or negative. Positive goals are the ones that an organism tries to attain, such as sexual companionship, food, victory etc. negative goals are the ones that an organism tries to escape from or avoid, such as embarrassing situations, punishments

These four steps continue on and on throughout the life-course of an organism. Because the needs are never ending, it leads to drive, which then lead to incentive and the goal.

For Example: The motivational cycle of the hungry man is over once when he eats and the goal is satisfied. But, the cycle will restart once the man gets hungry again. The cycle goes on and on only to end at the demise of an organism, at which point, the needs permanently stop. Motivational cycle means that behavior goes on in a sequence. Often times, a single motivated behavior can also fulfill multiple needs.

Approaches to the Study of Motivation

Two quite different theoretical approaches to human motivation are illustrated by psychoanalytic theory and social learning theory.

The psychoanalytic theory of Freud emphasizes two basic drives: sex and aggression. These motives arise in infancy, but their expression is forbidden by parents, and repression occurs. A repressed tendency remains active, however, as an unconscious motive and finds expression in indirect or symbolic ways.

Social learning theory, on the other hand, focuses on patterns of behavior that are learned in coping with the environment; learning may occur through direct reinforcement or vicariously through observing the consequences of behavior modeled by another person.

A cognitive process enables a person to foresee probable consequences and to alter behavior accordingly. Self reinforcement, based on one's own standards of conduct, also provides an important motivational control.

The psychoanalytic and the social learning approaches to human motivation can be illustrated by considering aggression as a motive. Aggression, defined as behavior intended to injure another person or to destroy property, may be primarily hostile-aimed at inflicting injury-or instrumental aimed at goals other than the victim's suffering.

For Freudian theorists, aggression is an instinct or a frustration produced drive; for social learning theorists it is a learned response.

Evidence indicates that observing aggressive behavior, either live or filmed, is not cathartic; it tends to increase aggressiveness.

The humanistic approach to motivation primarily focuses on the motivation towards self actualization. Thus Abraham Maslow in his need hierarchy theory places self- actualization at the peak.

A minimum level of lower level needs satisfaction has to be attained before one could strive towards self-actualization. Apart from self-actualization, the other needs analysed by him are: need to explore the environment for competence and need to master the environment.

Finally the homeostatic approach to motivation is based on behavior directed towards the reduction of tension in the system caused by the deprivation or a need. Thus according to this approach behavior is motivated towards need- reduction.

THE PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF MOTIVATION

One of the paradigms for the present study of human motivation is Psychoanalytic theory. Before going specifically into the details of the motivational theory, we shall attempt a survey of Psychoanalytic theory.

Historical Background of Psychoanalysis Psychoanalysis was one of the most influential theories of 20th century, but it was no less controversial. Both chance and selfdeterminism played their role in the development of the theory.

Chance, because Sigmund Freud, the father of psychoanalysis, had been dragged into the field of psychiatry for personal reasons. Determinism because, Freud's obsessive nature and “penchant for rejecting people who did not totally agree with him” largely determined the history of psychoanalysis (Boeree).

Freud owed influences both to his contemporaries in the field of psychiatry and to the scientific tradition of his time (Burns 70). Freud was born on the 6th of May 1856 in Freiberg in a small town in Moravia- a part of Austria- Hungary.

Hailing from a middleclass Jewish family, he graduated in medicine and started his research career involving the dissection of nervous system of eels. Following this, he worked for the next six years in the Psychological Laboratory under Brucke, from where he acquired the outlines of physical sciences in general (Strachey 13). Here he worked on the anatomy of central nervous system.

earnings from laboratory studies, in 1882 he left Brucke and began to work at Vienna General Hospital. In 1885 he started work at Salpetrere, the famous Parris Hospital for nervous diseases, with Charcot, the then reigning figure in psychiatry. Freud’s career with Charcot influenced much of his later theories.

In 1886 Freud returned to Vienna and got married. He set up a private clinic there to practise as a consultant for nervous diseases. Charles Darwin in On the Origin of Species rejected the special divine status of man, and henceforth mind became a legitimate

subject for scientific investigation. The concept of psychic energy governed much of Freud's theories. The channelling out, displacement and sublimation of the energy played a key role in 'defence mechanisms' and neurotic behaviour in Freudian psychoanalysis.

These concepts were much influenced by the then emerged notion of 'law of conservation of energy', according to which energy can neither be created nor be destroyed. Freud's application of these principles into his concept of psychic energy led him to the postulation of sublimation and displacement of that energy.

An Outline of the Psychoanalytic Theory

The term psychoanalysis has three distinct meanings. Firstly it is a school of psychology, which emphasises psychic determinism and dynamics. As a school of psychology it also emphasises the importance of childhood experiences in moulding one's adult personality and behaviour. Secondly, psychoanalysis, with its emphasis on the role of unconscious in determining human behaviour, is a specialised method for investigating the unconscious mental activities. Finally, psychoanalysis is a therapeutic method for the investigation and treatment of mental disorders, especially the neurotic disorders (Page 179).

It is to be noted that much of psychoanalytic theory was derived from Freud's clinical experience in treating neurotic patients. So the theory focused more on the origin of abnormal behaviour in the formulation of the concept of mind. It is also to be considered that the distinction between sanity and insanity is not that of type but that of degree. The defence mechanisms that serve to compensate for the frustrations of the sane human, in exaggeration lead to the

abnormality, of both neurotic and psychotic. Hence it can be seen that clinical data may not be insufficient for the formulation of a theory of mind.



THE PSYCHOANALYTIC THEORY OF MOTIVATION

Freud's psychoanalytic theory offers the most general and well-known conception of the dynamics of motivation. This conception is so vast that it is meaningless to ask whether it is "correct" or "incorrect." Rather, some aspects of the theory have been shown to have reasonable validity, other facets have no empirical support at all, and still other propositions are beyond empirical test. In this chapter Freud's theory of motivation and subsequent modifications introduced by "ego psychologists" are presented.

Conceptions devised by other theorists such as Adler, Jung, and Rank are ignored inasmuch as these have had less impact than Freud's ideas and the motivational aspects of these theories are not as clearly formulated. Following a description of the psychoanalytic approach, seven areas of research pertinent to Freud's conception are briefly exam ned.

The research topics are instincts, aggression and catharsis, sexual behavior, dreams, defense mechanisms, delay of gratification, and cognitive styles. The first four of these areas (instincts, aggression, sex, and dreams) primarily pertain to id functioning, while the next grouping (defense, delay of gratification, and cognitive styles) concerns ego-mediated states and processes.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF FREUD'S THEORY

It is useful to consider Freud's theory within the context of a biological and survival model. Given this viewpoint, which borrows much from Darwin, individuals are conceived as striving to satisfy personal needs within a world of limited and restricted resources. To satisfy these needs, behaviors must be undertaken that will lead to the desired goals. Virtually all such goals are located in the external

world. Thus, the individual must adapt to, and function within, the world at hand. For example, consider a psychological analysis of how behavior is governed by the need for food. All organisms have a biological need to ingest food. This need makes itself known to the organism by causing discomfort. There is a limited supply of food in the external world, and organisms must compete for these resources. After the individual engages in the appropriate activities and eats, the internal stimulation and pain (e.g., hunger cramps) that accompany food de privation cease. The organism then feels satisfied and remains in an unmotivated state or at rest until the onset of new hunger pains. These follow a cyclical pattern, again generating food-relevant behavior.

A Social-Cognitive Approach to Motivation

The task for investigators of motivation and personality is to identify major patterns of behavior and link them to underlying psychological processes. In this article we

(a) describe a research-based model that accounts for major patterns of behavior,

(b) examine the generality of this model—its utility for understanding domains beyond the ones in which it was originally developed, and

(c) explore the broader implications of the model for motivational and personality processes. Toward this end, we begin by describing two major patterns of cognition-affect-behavior that we identified in our early work: the maladaptive "helpless" response and the more adaptive "mastery-oriented" response (Diener & Dweck, 1978, 1980; Dweck, 1975; Dweck & Reppucci, 1973).'

The helpless pattern, as will be seen, is characterized by an avoidance of challenge and a deterioration of performance in the face of obstacles. The mastery-oriented pattern, in contrast, involves the seeking of challenging tasks and the maintenance of effective striving under failure.

Most interesting, our research with children has demonstrated that those who avoid challenge and show impairment in the face of difficulty are initially equal in ability to those who seek challenge and show persistence. Indeed some of the brightest, most skilled individuals exhibit the maladaptive pattern.

Thus it cannot be said that it is simply those with weak skills or histories of failure who (appropriately) avoid difficult tasks or whose skills prove fragile in the face of difficulty. The puzzle, then, was why

individuals of equal ability would show such marked performance differences in response to challenge.

Maladaptive Versus Adaptive Patterns: Cognitive, Affective, and Behavioral Components Why are the helpless and the mastery-oriented patterns considered to be maladaptive and adaptive, respectively, and why are they important? The helpless response as a characteristic style can be considered maladaptive because challenge and obstacles are inherent in most important pursuits. Indeed, one might ask, what valued long-term goal (e.g., pertaining to one's work, one's relationships, or one's moral strivings) does not at some point pose risks, throw up barriers, present dilemmas?

A response pattern that deters individuals from confronting obstacles or that prevents them from functioning effectively in the face of difficulty must ultimately limit their attainments. The mastery-oriented pattern involves the seeking of challenging tasks and the generation of effective strategies in the face of obstacles. As a characteristic style, this enjoyment of challenge and willingness to sustain engagement with difficult tasks appears to be an adaptive stance toward valued goals.

Of course, individuals need to be able to gauge when tasks should be avoided or abandoned (see Janoff-Bulman & Brickman, 1981); nonetheless, the ability to maintain a commitment to valued goals through periods of difficulty must maximize attainments in the long run As we have noted, the helpless and the mastery-oriented patterns are two distinct, coherent patterns, with striking differences in the cognitions, affect, and behavior that characterize each. Because these patterns lie at the heart of our model, we shall describe them in some detail.

Humanistic Theory of Motivation

Humanistic theories of motivation are based on the idea that people also have strong cognitive reasons to perform various actions. This is famously illustrated in Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which presents different motivations at different levels.

First, people are motivated to fulfill basic biological needs for food and shelter, as well as those of safety, love, and esteem. Once the lower level needs have been met, the primary motivator becomes the need for self-actualization, or the desire to fulfill one's individual potential.

What is Exploratory behavior and curiosity Zuckerman's Sensation seeking Achievement, Affiliation and Power Motivational Competence Self-regulation Flow?

Exploratory behavior and curiosity Zuckerman's Sensation seeking Achievement, Affiliation and Power Motivational Competence Self-regulation Flow

Exploratory behavior

Exploration

Exploration is an information-gathering venture (e.g., mouthing and simple manipulation of objects) (Belsky and Most 1983). Through exploration children come to know their environments.

Exploration dominates behavior for the first 9 months of life. By 12 months, play and exploration co-occur. By 18 months play accounts for more of the child's interactions with the environment than does exploration (Belsky and Most 1983). Exploration also precedes play to the extent that children of all ages must explore an object, or know its properties, before they can play with it. The knowledge resulting from exploration is basis for play.

Exploratory Behavior

Exploratory behavior can be defined as behavior directed toward acquiring information about the environment. Exploration is generally considered to be different than simple ambulation, although in practice it is often difficult to completely separate one from the other. Harro (1993) has reviewed some of the common methods used to assess exploratory behavior, including the open field, elevated plus-maze, and hole-board test (which involves the measurement of head-dipping into an array of holes placed in an open field apparatus; see File and Wardill, 1975). It is important to note that behavior in these test situations reflects several factors besides exploration, including ambulatory tendencies and fear of novelty (neophobia).

Identity

Identity exploration is a fundamental developmental task for adolescents and young adults. This exploration entails recognizing and solidifying one's personal interests, values, goals, commitments, and overall sense of self. As part of identity exploration, adolescents often question assumptions and beliefs that they previously took for granted, including beliefs about substance use.

Over the past few decades, US youth have increasingly delayed careers, marriage, and parenthood, and as a result, identity exploration extends beyond adolescence and into young adulthood. These years of prolonged exploration are referred to by some as “emerging adulthood.”

Although identity exploration is necessary, normal, and healthy, it may sometimes involve experimentation with substance use. Despite the short-term and long-term health risks of the behavior, substance use (and alcohol use in particular) can serve developmental functions such as making friends, testing boundaries of independence, and exploring one's sense of self. Thus, some youth view substance use as a natural pathway to identity formation.

Spatial Cognition in Animals

Exploratory behaviors in mammals are reactions to novel settings. This is easily observable in a variety of animals, but most experimental work in psychology, for example, has focused on rodents or primates. Both engage in wayfinding activities and reveal specific patterns of movement-related behaviors. In rodents, exploration usually follows a short freezing phase in which the various senses are used to intake available information and

evaluate and look for danger. Exploration follows, and multiple contacts with objects located in the environment take place via the phenomenon of habituation. This is part of a more general process of knowledge acquisition. In settings previously encountered, reexploration or dishabituation occurs. Thus, novelty in an environment exists normally through reference to stored memories of previously explored or familiar places. The key here is that if novelty is detected and exploration behaviors are triggered, this implies that some representation of the initial situation has been constructed. Such exploratory behavior is assumed by neuropsychologists to be an updating activity of the currently stored cognitive map or spatial representation. When experiencing a new environment, a mismatch between what is stored in the cognitive map or spatial representation and what is observed triggers exploration. In this context, spatial cognitive abilities in animals are often evaluated in a reaction-to-change environment, when repeated exposures to a given spatial configuration are followed by habituation or exploration to fix spatial relationships between environmental objects. If an object is displaced, then the spatial arrangement changes. New exploratory activity provides evidence of a mismatch between the new representation or arrangement and a representation (or cognitive map) of the original situation. Spatial processing and learning in animals are often examined via shortcut and detour tasks (e.g., when a learned path becomes blocked and requires some alternate route to be selected to reach a goal).

Much animal wayfinding activity is said to be governed by the process of path integration. This type of activity has often been observed in the behavior of ants, bees, wasps, or other nesting or home-based organisms. Thus, when foraging behavior occurs and

food is found, the organism can return in a direct line or shortcut to the home base. Often called dead reckoning, this action is taken to mean that spatial representations occur across species from insects and other invertebrates to mammals. In insects, the spatial representation may be produced as a retinoptic image (or snapshot) compared to the constructed representations of mammals.

Homing has been observed in a wide variety of species, including ants, spiders, dogs, bees, wasps, and humans, suggesting that it may involve a similar algorithm for processing route-based information across these different species.

This appears to be true even when the input data vary among the different tasks. For example, day roving species may use visually detected landmarks to correct minor errors in homing. However, when visual cues are not directly available (e.g., in night active rodents),

when deprived of any directional reference, or when animals are prevented from using the sun's magnetic field (as when a reflective surface is interposed), they still perform homing tasks successfully, implying that they assess distance and direction through inertial signals from the vestibular system, somatosensory feedback, and motor signals that specify speed of locomotion and change of direction. Vestibular signals are presumed to play a key role in the estimation of rotations but not translations.

For day foraging rodents, it has been suggested that dead reckoning is mainly a backup system that allows an animal to explore novel or unfamiliar parts of an environment when access to familiar landmarks is not available.

Curiosity and Exploration

What makes people curious? Why do individuals explore the unknown? The research in these areas is inconclusive and often contradictory. Are curiosity and exploration motivations or drives? Can curiosity and exploration be operationally defined independent of one another? Motivation is defined as the arousal, direction and persistence of behavior (Franken, 1994); an internal state or condition that activates behavior and gives it direction; desire or want, that energizes and directs goal-oriented behavior; the influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behavior. Drive is defined as a basic or instinctive need; a vigorous effort toward a goal; to cause and guide the movement.

Curiosity is defined as a need, thirst or desire for knowledge. The concept of curiosity is central to motivation. The term can be used as both a description of a specific behavior as well as a hypothetical construct to explain the same behavior. Berlyne (1960) believes that curiosity is a motivational prerequisite for exploratory behavior. The term curiosity is used both as a description of a specific behavior as well as a hypothetical construct to explain the same behavior. Exploration refers to all activities concerned with gathering information about the environment. This leads to the conflict and question of whether exploratory behavior should be defined in terms of the movements that an animal or human performs while exploring or in terms of the goal or purpose of the behavior observed. A clear distinction between these two may not always be possible.

What exactly are curiosity and exploration? Loewenstein (1994) points out four central issues of curiosity: definition and dimensionally, cause, voluntary exposure to curiosity, and situational determinants. He adds a fifth issue of superficiality and

intensity since he states that curiosity can arise, change focus or end abruptly. Loewenstein believes that despite its transience, curiosity can be a powerful motivational force. "Curiosity often produces impulse behavior and attempts at self control" (Loewenstein, 1994). Just look at the stories of Pandora and Eve, in which curiosity causes people to expose themselves knowingly to terrible consequences. Langevin (1971) has conducted research in the area of curiosity and classifies measures of curiosity into two categories. First, curiosity is viewed as a motivational state and measured with behavioral indices. Second, he conceptualizes curiosity as a personality trait that is assessed by personality measures. It has been suggested that curiosity is not a unitary construct. At the conceptual level there are numerous definitions of curiosity which tend to encompass a broad range of characteristics. For Fowler (1965), boredom is one prerequisite or motivation for curiosity (exploration).

Curiosity and exploration are difficult to define independently when looking at them from a psychological perspective, the concepts motivation and drive come into play and become intertwined. The underlying problem in using and defining (scientifically and socially) is the circularity of the terms.

Roget's Thesaurus says that the absence of curiosity is boredom, ennui, satiety, take no interest, mind one's own business, uninquisitive.

Historical Overview of Curiosity & Exploration

The earliest discussions of curiosity were conducted by philosophers and religious thinkers and centered on the question of curiosity's moral status rather then on its psychological

underpinnings. Cicero referred to curiosity as a "passion for learning" and argued that the story of Ulysses and the Sirens was really a parable about curiosity. Several forms of curiosity related behavior such as search behavior, movement toward an unknown object and asking questions are included in the area of motivational psychology, however, curiosity does not fit well into the conceptual framework developed along the traditional pathways of behavioral sciences. Firstly, the conception of an intrinsically motivated behavioral system, which cannot be linked to a reducible drive raises serious questions about motivational psychology since the 1950's. The idea of curiosity was rediscovered when laboratory researchers wondered about the maze activities of the lab rat when none of the drive states such as thirst or hunger were aroused. Secondly, Wohlwill (1981) states that the curiosity phenomena cannot be investigated without reference to the natural environment of an individual. Before 1950 curiosity was seen in the light of its social function, for example: the eagerness or greed to get to know something new for the sake of newness, and in early psychological literature the term curiosity had a negative connotation. The scientific term "curiosity" is more neutral.

The most basic problem that has occupied curiosity researchers and theorists is the underlying cause of curiosity. Is curiosity a primary or secondary drive? A primary drive is inborn or innate whereas a secondary drive is learned or acquired. The research is inconclusive. If secondary, from what more basic drive or motive does it derive? Older theories oriented toward instinct and drive concepts. The defining feature is that curiosity produces and unpleasant sensation (usually labeled arousal) that is reduced by exploratory behavior.

William James (1890) pointed out two kinds of curiosity. He emphasized the biological function of curiosity as a mechanism of instinct driven behavior that serves in approaching new objects. Approach and exploration are described as being characteristic forms of behavior. The second kind of curiosity pointed out by James is "scientific curiosity" and "metaphysical wonder" with which "the practical instinctive root has probably nothing to do" rather "the philosophical brain responds to an inconsistency or a gap in its knowledge".

In the psychoanalytical literature Freud views curiosity as a derivative of the sex drive. The partial impulse of looking motivates the child's great interest in all things and all events that have to do with sexuality. Whereas the looking impulse and curiosity are primarily sexual in origin, the child's exploratory interest and desire for knowledge can be considered to be a by product of cognitive development. Due to social pressure, sexual exploration is later abandoned.

Blarer (1951) states that the inhibition of curiosity may result in different forms of pathological behavior, such as depression, and higher levels of sensation-seeking or thrill seeking behavior. Blarer proposed curiosity to be intrinsic to the individuals perceptions and world experiences and thus Blarer is the basis for the intrinsic motivation viewpoint in curiosity theory.

Theoretical Conceptions of Curiosity & Exploration

The postulation of an independent exploratory drive is based on the observation of the exploratory activities of animals in situations where there were no external stimuli to satisfy homeostatic drives (water or food). Nissen (1930) experimented with rats and defines

exploratory behavior in two ways 1. as an inborn exploratory drive 2. that curiosity is a secondary or learned drive acquired through classical conditioning. Originally, Berlyne (1954a, 1960) thought that the aversive and drive-reducing effect of deviations of the arousal potential from the individual's optimum level as the underlying mechanism of curiosity. Since then, Berlyne has come to believe that curiosity is externally stimulated, and that the curiosity drive is aroused by external stimuli specifically stimulus conflict. This encompasses complexity, novelty and surprise. Berlyne believed that in the short term, stimulus change and novelty is accompanied by physiological change. However, over longer periods of time, investigating behaviors are not accompanied by readily identifiable physiological changes. Berlyne also holds that exploratory behavior serves to maintain or attain a medium to optimal activation level for the organism. In all cases where exploration takes place, arousal or desire is reduced.

Fiske and Maddi (1961) hold a medium arousal level model and differentiate between the terms arousal and activation. They define arousal as "diverse manifestations of activation, such as muscle tone, heart rate, and increased sensitivity for stimuli". Their definition of activation is "the state of a catalytic and energizing mechanism in the central nervous system".

McReynolds bases his theories of exploratory behavior on animal experiments. Motivational aspects of exploratory behavior, for example: a living being is active in order to receive new perceptual information from its environment, as well as adaptive aspects, for example: a living being is in a situation of stimuli that it must regulate and adapt to. Fowler's (1965) boredom-based perspective interprets curiosity as a homeostatic drive (internally stimulated)

since the curiosity drive seems to be both evoked and satisfied by the same stimuli. He attacked Berlyne by noting the inherent contradiction in the view that the curiosity drive was both evoked and satisfied by the same stimuli. Theorists that believe that curiosity is externally stimulated were "forced to ascribe both drive-eliciting and reinforcing properties to the same stimuli- namely the novel stimuli for which the animal responded" (Fowler, 1965). Fowler observed animals producing the exploration- initiating response before, rather than after, exposure to the stimulus.

Hunt (1963) states that curiosity refers to a "motivation inherent in information processing" this means that curiosity is a mixture of cognition and motivation. The main principle, which is equally as important as the drive reduction hypothesis is the establishment and maintenance of an optimal amount of incongruence. Incongruence determines the strength, direction and affective qualities of behavior.

Drive Theories

Drive theories differ on whether they view curiosity as a primary or secondary drive. Some research has shown that unsatisfied curiosity tends to intensify over some interval as do other drives such as hunger and thirst.

Curiosity has a motivated force that is stimulated internally (boredom) or by external stimuli. However, Hebb (1955) believes that curiosity seeking behavior poses a paradox for drive based accounts of curiosity. "Drive is not simply a state the decrease of which is rewarding. At high levels the reduction of drive is rewarding, but at low levels, an increase may be rewarding" (Hebb, 1955).

What is the role of homeostatic drives to curiosity? Harlow states that exploration is an example of human motivation that is independent from homeostatic drives. Harlow's nonhomeostatic intrinsic drive theory has been attacked by drive and learning theorists. Kreitler and Kreitler (1976) have changed positions from the basic assumption of drive theory to a more cognitive process in the development of exploratory behavior.

Curiosity & Culture

There is evidence for cross-cultural similarities in exploratory behavior (Dragun, 1981). However, cultures generally vary both in attitudes towards exploration and information seeking as well as in the range of situations allowing the expression of the various manifestations of exploration and curiosity , this is especially true for the sensation-seeking motive. Zuckerman (1994) defines sensation seeking as "the seeking of varied, novel, complex and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experiences."

Berlyne also conducted research on cross cultural comparisons in the area of curiosity. His findings conclude that there is a high similarity of demand characteristics of stimuli in two cultures of widely differing historical antecedents and technological development. Also, different cultures form various geographical regions show evidence for cross-cultural similarities in exploratory behavior. More research is needed to study curiosity behavior in its own cultural context to gain a better understanding of the functional relationships between various environmental and social facilitators and inhibitors of curiosity in a given society.

Zuckerman's Sensation seeking

Sensation-seeking, defined as the tendency to seek out varied, complex, novel, and intense experiences, has been recognized as a general personality trait in psychological research since the 1960s. In the past decade, cognitive neuroscience has taken aim at the character trait, hoping to shed light on how the brains of thrill seekers might be wired differently than those who are content with more tame pursuits.

Beyond understanding why one person relishes the fright factor while the next studiously avoids it, scientists are asking how sensation-seeking relates to risky behaviors such as fast driving, drug experimentation, and risky sex, as well as psychiatric disorders ranging from substance use disorder to bipolar disorder–areas where the public-health implications are most clear. The hope is that by understanding the neural mechanisms underlying such behaviors, both at the molecular level and at the systems level, it might be possible to develop therapeutic interventions–pharmacological, behavioral, or neurostimulatory–that might prevent the deleterious effects of risk-taking or help people channel their taste for adventure toward safer pursuits.

Not All Sensation Seeking is the Same

It’s clear from common experience that there is a huge range of sensation-seeking behavior, and that having an affinity for horror flicks or rollercoasters does not inherently make one a drug user or serial cheater. The late psychologist Marvin Zuckerman, Ph.D., who developed the original sensation-seeking scale in 1964 as part of sensory deprivation experiments, outlined four subtypes

representing the various ways sensation-seeking is expressed behaviorally:

1. Thrill & Adventure Seeking: the pursuit of physical activities that are exciting, unusual, and potentially dangerous (e.g., sky-diving)

2. Experience Seeking: stimulation through the mind and senses; the pursuit of unfamiliar and complex environmental stimuli, as through travel or meeting new people.

3. Disinhibition: sensation-seeking through engagement with other people; searching for opportunities to lose inhibitions by engaging in variety in sex, alcohol, drugs, etc.

4. Boredom Susceptibility: the tendency to be easily bored by familiar or repetitive situations or people, or by routine work.

Balancing Reward and Impulse Control

Brain-imaging studies have offered some intriguing clues as to how the brain of a high-sensation seeker might be different from that of someone who generally avoids risk, but the answers are far from clear. Much of the work has focused on adolescence, a period when risk-taking is often notoriously elevated, as any parent of a teenager can attest. Adolescence is well recognized as a period of rapid brain changes, as neural systems are pruned and shaped in concert with one's environmental influences to lay the groundwork for adulthood. In this context, sensation-seeking can be and often is adaptive–a means by which learning and experience drive brain development.

"It's part of normal healthy development to be curious and seek out new sensations and experiences," says Mary Phillips, M.D., a neuropsychiatric researcher at the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine. "The problem is if it's sustained into adulthood and it's not

checked, and, secondly, if online regulatory systems don't kick in like they should. Then the thrill-seeking gets out of hand and that's when we run into problems with people developing substance use disorders and other problems."

Among the prevailing models for explaining why adolescents tend to have a higher propensity for risk-taking is that the brain systems for reward, on the one hand, and impulse control, on the other, are developing along different trajectories. Reward systems in subcortical areas tend to develop first, while cognitive-control systems in the prefrontal cortex don't fully development until the early 20s.

"If the two systems are in balance, all is fine and eventually the regulatory systems take control. That's adulthood," says Phillips. But in psychiatric conditions such as bipolar disorder, which she studies, the thrill-seeking phase can continue unchecked. "In bipolar disorder, this sensation seeking is not only sustained and intense, but it is truly dysregulated, leading to problems with substance abuse as well as other behaviors that can have really bad outcomes," she says.

In a series of functional brain imaging studies, Phillips research team has zeroed in on two brain regions of interest to reward processing: the ventral striatum, deep in the brain, and the ventrolateral prefrontal cortex (PFC), on the left side of the front brain. The ventral striatum, which includes the nucleus accumbus, is well recognized for its central role in reward learning–but it doesn't appear to discern the relative value of reward, and requires other regulatory regions of the brain to rein it in, including the ventrolateral PFC.

The team's 2017 paper reported an indirect pathway linking activity in specific reward-related brain structures to risky behavior in young adults who scored high on a scale of impulsive sensation-seeking. The work–the first to make this tripartite connection among brain system, risky behavior, and sensation-seeking as a trait–opens the door for targeted therapeutic interventions that might prevent or ameliorate deleterious risk taking, including neurostimulation protocols that could tamp down or ramp up brain activity that is too high or too low.

The researchers have been testing a therapy using transcranial direct current stimulation, a noninvasive brain stimulation modality, to do just that in a group of young adults at high risk for psychopathology (paper in review).

Dozens of other research groups are also investigating neural pathways underlying sensation-seeking and risk-taking in an attempt to localize the brain regions underlying this ubiquitous personality trait. Lauren Sherman, Ph.D., and colleagues at Temple University reviewed 23 brain imaging studies investigating individual differences

in brain responses to risky decision making in adolescents from childhood to young adulthood. Somewhat surprisingly, their exhaustive review of the literature found no common neural locus and concluded that "neural factors differentiating riskier teens are not localized to a single region."

The brain regions identified in the studies, which spanned ten years of cognitive neuroscience, included 25 cortical and subcortical areas. The authors urged researchers to "think outside the brain" in developing more complex models that account for brain as well as

environmental factors that interact to make individuals more or less susceptible to risky business.

The Dopamine Connection

Studies of identical twins suggest that heritability accounts for about 60 percent of individual variance in sensation-seeking behavior, and scientists have identified genetic variations that may explain some of these differences. For example, some subtypes of brain receptors for dopamine, the primary neurotransmitter involved in reward processing, are associated with greater sensation-seeking tendencies, while other types appear to have an opposite effect: the fewer there are, the greater the novelty-seeking behavior. The latter may act as brakes on dopamine release, so having fewer of them means that more dopamine is released in response to novelty. This may in turn drive reward-seeking behavior.

The involvement of dopamine in novelty-seeking behavior may also explain the well-established relationship between high sensation-seeking and drug use. High-sensation seekers are more likely than lows to try drugs earlier, to become addicted, and to experiment with multiple drugs. Like drugs of abuse, exposure to novel stimuli releases a rush of dopamine in reward areas of the brain. And, high-sensation seekers often develop a sort of tolerance to high-risk activities—boredom sets in, and they are compelled to add new twists that re-create the initial charge.

Effects of Achievement Motivation

Motivation is the basic drive for all of our actions. Motivation refers to the dynamics of our behavior, which involves our needs, desires,

and ambitions in life. Achievement motivation is based on reaching success and achieving all of our aspirations in life. Achievement goals can affect the way a person performs a task and represent a desire to show competence (Harackiewicz, Barron, Carter, Lehto, & Elliot, 1997).

These basic physiological motivational drives affect our natural behavior in different environments. Most of our goals are incentive-based and can vary from basic hunger to the need for love and the establishment of mature sexual relationships. Our motives for achievement can range from biological needs to satisfying creative desires or realizing success in competitive ventures. Motivation is important because it affects our lives everyday. All of our behaviors, actions, thoughts, and beliefs are influenced by our inner drive to succeed.

The Hierarchal Model of Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation has been conceptualized in many different ways. Our understanding of achievement-relevant effects, cognition, and behavior has improved. Despite being similar in nature, many achievement motivation approaches have been developed separately, suggesting that most achievement motivation theories are in concordance with one another instead of competing. Motivational researchers have sought to promote a hierarchal model of approach and avoidance achievement motivation by incorporating the two prominent theories: the achievement motive approach and the achievement goal approach. Achievement motives include the need for achievement and the fear of failure. These are the more predominant motives that direct our behavior toward positive and negative outcomes. Achievement goals are viewed as more solid cognitive representations pointing individuals

toward a specific end. There are three types of these achievement goals: a performance-approach goal, a performance-avoidance goal, and a mastery goal. A performance-approach goal is focused on attaining competence relative to others, a performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others, and a mastery goal is focused on the development of competence itself and of task mastery. Achievement motives can be seen as direct predictors of achievement-relevant circumstances. Thus, achievement motives are said to have an indirect or distal influence, and achievement goals are said to have a direct or proximal influence on achievement-relevant outcomes (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

These motives and goals are viewed as working together to regulate achievement behavior. The hierarchal model presents achievement goals as predictors for performance outcomes. The model is being further conceptualized to include more approaches to achievement motivation. One weakness of the model is that it does not provide an account of the processes responsible for the link between achievement goals and performance. As this model is enhanced, it becomes more useful in predicting the outcomes of achievement-based behaviors (Elliot & McGregor, 1999).

Achievement Goals and Information Seeking

Theorists have proposed that people's achievement goals affect their achievement-related attitudes and behaviors. Two different types of achievement-related attitudes include task-involvement and ego-involvement. Task-involvement is a motivational state in which a person's main goal is to acquire skills and understanding whereas the main goal in ego-involvement is to demonstrate superior abilities (Butler, 1999). One example of an activity where someone strives to

attain mastery and demonstrate superior ability is schoolwork. However situational cues, such as the person's environment or surroundings, can affect the success of achieving a goal at any time.

Studies confirm that a task-involvement activity more often results in challenging attributions and increasing effort (typically in activities providing an opportunity to learn and develop competence) than in an ego-involvement activity. Intrinsic motivation, which is defined as striving to engage in activity because of self-satisfaction, is more prevalent when a person is engaged in task-involved activities. When people are more ego-involved, they tend to take on a different conception of their ability,

where differences in ability limit the effectiveness of effort. Ego-involved individuals are driven to succeed by outperforming others, and their feelings of success depend on maintaining self-worth and avoiding failure. On the other hand, task-involved individuals tend to adopt their conception of ability as learning through applied effort (Butler, 1999). Therefore less able individuals will feel more successful as long as they can satisfy an effort to learn and improve. Ego-invoking conditions tend to produce less favorable responses to failure and difficulty.

Competence moderated attitudes and behaviors are more prevalent in ego-involved activities than task-involved. Achievement does not moderate intrinsic motivation in task-involving conditions, in which people of all levels of ability could learn to improve. In ego-involving conditions, intrinsic motivation was higher among higher achievers who demonstrated superior ability than in low achievers who could not demonstrate such ability (Butler, 1999).

These different attitudes toward achievement can also be compared in information seeking.

Task- and ego-involving settings bring about different goals, conceptions of ability, and responses to difficulty. They also promote different patterns of information seeking. People of all levels of ability will seek information relevant to attaining their goal of improving mastery in task-involving conditions. However they need to seek information regarding self-appraisal to gain a better understanding of their self-capacity (Butler, 1999). On the other hand people in ego-involving settings are more interested in information about social comparisons, assessing their ability relative to others.

Self-Worth Theory in Achievement Motivation

Self-worth theory states that in certain situations students stand to gain by not trying and deliberately withholding effort. If poor performance is a threat to a person's sense of self-esteem, this lack of effort is likely to occur. This most often occurs after an experience of failure. Failure threatens self-estimates of ability and creates uncertainty about an individual's capability to perform well on a subsequent basis. If the following performance turns out to be poor, then doubts concerning ability are confirmed.

Self-worth theory states that one way to avoid threat to self-esteem is by withdrawing effort. Withdrawing effort allows failure to be attributed to lack of effort rather than low ability which reduces overall risk to the value of one's self-esteem. When poor performance is likely to reflect poor ability, a situation of high threat is created to the individual's intellect. On the other hand, if an excuse allows poor performance to be attributed to a factor

unrelated to ability, the threat to self-esteem and one's intellect is much lower (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

A study was conducted on students involving unsolvable problems to test some assumptions of the self-worth theory regarding motivation and effort. The results showed that there was no evidence of reported reduction of effort despite poorer performance when the tasks were described as moderately difficult as compared with tasks much higher in difficulty.

The possibility was raised that low effort may not be responsible for the poor performance of students in situations which create threats to self-esteem. Two suggestions were made, one being that students might unconsciously withdraw effort, and the other stating that students may reduce effort as a result of withdrawing commitment from the problem. Regardless of which suggestion is true, self-worth theory assumes that individuals have a reduced tendency to take personal responsibility for failure (Thompson, Davidson, & Barber, 1995).

Avoidance Achievement Motivation

In everyday life, individuals strive to be competent in their activities. In the past decade, many theorists have utilized a social-cognitive achievement goal approach in accounting for individuals striving for competence. An achievement goal is commonly defined as the purpose for engaging in a task, and the specific type of goal taken on creates a framework for how individuals experience their achievement pursuits. Achievement goal theorists commonly identify two distinct ideas toward competence: a performance goal focused on demonstrating ability when compared to others, and a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task

mastery. Performance goals are hypothesized to produce vulnerability to certain response patterns in achievement settings such as preferences for easy tasks, withdrawal of effort in the face of failure, and decreased task enjoyment. Mastery goals can lead to a motivational pattern that creates a preference for moderately challenging tasks, persistence in the face of failure, and increased enjoyment of tasks (Elliot & Church, 1997).

Most achievement goal theorists conceptualize both performance and mastery goals as the "approach" forms of motivation. Existing classical achievement motivation theorists claimed that activities are emphasized and oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure, while the achievement goal theorists focused on their approach aspect. More recently, an integrated achievement goal conceptualization was proposed

that includes both modern performance and mastery theories with the standard approach and avoidance features. In this basis for motivation,

the performance goal is separated into an independent approach component and avoidance component, and three achievement orientations are conceived: a mastery goal focused on the development of competence and task mastery, a performance-approach goal directed toward the attainment of favorable judgments of competence, and a performance-avoidance goal centered on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence.

The mastery and performance-approach goals are characterized as self-regulating to promote potential positive outcomes and processes to absorb an individual in their task or to create excitement leading to a mastery pattern of achievement results.

Performance-avoidance goals, however, are characterized as promoting negative circumstances.

Intrinsic Motivation and Achievement Goals

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the enjoyment of and interest in an activity for its own sake. Fundamentally viewed as an approach form of motivation, intrinsic motivation is identified as an important component of achievement goal theory. Most achievement goal and intrinsic motivational theorists argue that mastery goals are facilitative of intrinsic motivation and related mental processes and performance goals create negative effects. Mastery goals are said to promote intrinsic motivation by fostering perceptions of challenge, encouraging task involvement, generating excitement, and supporting self-determination while performance goals are the opposite. Performance goals are portrayed as undermining intrinsic motivation by instilling perceptions of threat, disrupting task involvement, and creating anxiety and pressure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996).

An alternative set of predictions may be derived from the approach-avoidance framework. Both performance-approach and mastery goals are focused on attaining competence and foster intrinsic motivation. More specifically, in performance-approach or mastery orientations, individuals perceive the achievement setting as a challenge, and this likely will create excitement, encourage cognitive functioning, increase concentration and task absorption, and direct the person toward success and mastery of information which facilitates intrinsic motivation. The performance-avoidance goal is focused on avoiding incompetence, where individuals see the achievement setting as a threat and seek to escape it (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). This orientation is likely to elicit anxiety and

withdrawal of effort and cognitive resources while disrupting concentration and motivation.

Personal Goals Analysis

In recent years, theorists have increasingly relied on various goal constructs to account for action in achievement settings. Four levels of goal representation have been introduced: task-specific guidelines for performance, such as performing a certain action, situation-specific orientations that represent the purpose of achievement activity, such as demonstrating competence relative to others in a situation, personal goals that symbolize achievement pursuits, such as getting good grades, and self-standards and future self-images, including planning for future goals and successes. These goal-based achievement motivation theories have focused almost exclusively on approach forms behavior but in recent years have shifted more toward avoidance (Elliot & Sheldon, 1997).

Motivation is an important factor in everyday life. Our basic behaviors and feelings are affected by our inner drive to succeed over life's challenges while we set goals for ourselves. Our motivation also promotes our feelings of competence and self-worth as we achieve our goals. It provides us with means to compete with others in order to better ourselves and to seek out new information to learn and absorb. Individuals experience motivation in different ways, whether it is task- or ego-based in nature. Some people strive to achieve their goals for personal satisfaction and self-improvement while others compete with their surroundings in achievement settings to simply be classified as the best. Motivation and the resulting behavior are both affected by the many different models of achievement motivation. These models, although separate, are very similar in nature and theory. The mastery and performance

achievement settings each have a considerable effect on how an individual is motivated. Each theorist has made a contribution to the existing theories in today's achievement studies. More often than not, theorists build off of each other's work to expand old ideas and create new ones. Achievement motivation is an intriguing field, and I find myself more interested after reviewing similar theories from different perspectives.

Motivational Competence

Learning competence motivation theory can help you motivate your team to apply greater effort, be more persistent and take on more challenging tasks. By understanding this learning motivation theory, team leaders or managers can use appropriate praise and feedback to help employees become more motivated in learning new skills.

Understanding the nuances of competence motivation and how you can apply it in the workplace can take time and practice. In this article, we explain how competence motivation impacts an employee's performance and share tips for helping employees build high perceptions of competence in the workplace.

Competence motivation theory

Competence motivation is a theory that centers on the idea that people are driven to engage in activities to develop or demonstrate their skills. If someone successfully performs a challenging task and receives praise from family or peers for it, then they will experience

a belief in their competence in that achievement domain—physical, cognitive or social.

Success in that domain will help them recognize that they can control their performance. High perceptions of competence and control create feelings of pleasure that maintain or lead to an increase in competence motivation.

Benefits of competence motivation theory in the workplace

Employees who are successful when attempting new skills or tasks and receive positive reinforcement will internalize a self-reward system as well as a set of mastery goals. This can have a positive and long-term effect on their confidence. Because they are internalizing their own set of standards, employees will no longer be dependent on others to evaluate their performances or motivate them to continue. Instead, they will be motivated to continue on their own because they recognize they are competent in that area.

People who perceive themselves as highly competent in one area will also demonstrate higher levels of effort and persistence as well as have a preference for more challenging tasks. People who have high levels of competence are also likely to have high levels of self-worth and self-esteem, which can impact every area of their lives, from relationships to employment.

By using the right kind of praise and positive reinforcement, you can motivate an employee to want to perform in a way that will bring more praise. The sense of accomplishment the person experiences will provide an additional reward. The employee may also come to define their own mastery goals. Positive reinforcement results in the general sense that you can impact your own circumstances.

How to use competence motivation in the workplace

Research suggests that when teachers emphasize meaning and individual development in the classroom, children's competence motivation is increased. The same applies to employees in the workplace. Here are a few ways you can use competence motivation in the workplace right away:

1. Assign tasks that are personally interesting to employees
2. Provide the right kind of feedback
3. Assign tasks that are moderately and appropriately challenging
4. Encourage mastery, skill development and the learning process
5. Encourage challenging but achievable goals
6. Give praise when earned

1. Assign tasks that are personally interesting to employees

Employees will be more interested in pursuing mastery of an area if they are personally interested in the topic or task. This will create a kind of peak involvement, where the employee isn't thinking about objectives, rewards or anything else extrinsic. And by being wholly involved in learning, the employee should be more likely to achieve competency in the subject.

2. Provide the right kind of feedback

Managers or team leaders can help employees feel in control of their learning and achievements by providing feedback that encourages them to recognize the power they have over what and how they learn. When giving feedback, talk about how far the

employee has come since first trying the task. Focus on the process they are using to learn.

3. Assign tasks that are moderately and appropriately challenging

Encourage employees to try tasks that are appropriately challenging for their skill levels. To do this successfully, encourage them to focus on mastery goals, which by nature are always just out of reach. Also, focus on the constructive value of failure and mistakes. This will help you achieve a healthy balance, providing both mental challenges as well as comfort in knowing that occasional errors are okay.

4. Encourage mastery, skill development and the learning process

Unlike performance goals, which focus on a specific outcome, mastery goals are about mastering a task and being better each day than you were the day before. You never quite reach them because there is always room for improvement. By focusing on mastery, skill development and the learning process, employees in your workplace will be less likely to give up in difficult circumstances and more likely to persevere when experiencing setbacks.

5. Encourage challenging but achievable goals

According to the competence motivation theory, success or mastery of a task can lead to an overall increase in the perception of one's own competence. However, if the person is continually failing at a task or does not receive peer support, it can have the opposite effect. That is why it is essential to encourage challenging but achievable goals. If the goals are too easily achieved, the employee

can become bored or even embarrassed by the simplicity of the tasks they are given. Challenging goals are important in a public setting like a workplace.

6. Give praise when earned

Giving employees praise for growth or increased mastery of a task or skill can help to create a high perception of competence. Praise employees for their hard work, rewarding success publicly and praising exemplary work throughout your department or organization.

Self-regulation

Self-regulation is the ability to monitor and manage your energy states, emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in ways that are acceptable and produce positive results such as well-being, loving relationships, and learning.

It is how we deal with stressors and as such, lays the foundation for all other activity. Developing this ability requires self-awareness, emotional intelligence, efficient filtering of sensory stimulation, coping effectively with stress, relating well to others, and sustaining focus.

Self-Regulation and Childhood Development

It is one of the big developmental tasks of childhood. Sometimes, kids develop it naturally from being around self-regulating adults, from playing and exercising, from being in nature, eating healthy foods, and getting plenty of sleep.

Other times, however, kids are over-stimulated, around adults who are stressed and/or dys-regulated, and are not getting enough exercise, time outside in nature, sleep, hydration, and healthy food. These kids struggle with attention, learning, impulse control and relationships.

Self-regulation involves the whole person/child

What is self-regulation in terms of the whole person or child? This skill involves much more than simply self control. It involves the whole person including these 4 aspects:

Physical: biology, temperament

Emotional: personality, exposure to trauma, ability to inhibit impulses,

Mental: focus, shift of focus, control, management of distractions & frustration

Social: interpersonal interactions, empathy, values

Self-regulation takes energy.

When a child acts out or melts down, it is because s/he has no more fuel for managing stressors. That's why it's important to notice what stresses your children and what soothes them; to teach them mindfulness skills; to play with them; to make sure they get exercise and plenty of sleep.

Dr. Stewart Shanker uses a car analogy to explain self-regulation, which is paraphrased below:

Self-regulation is like maintaining a consistent rate of acceleration. If we want to go 25 mph, then we will need to adjust the pressure to

the accelerator to allow for changes to the road, incline and wind. Driving requires constant changes depending on traffic conditions and speed zones, etc. Learning to accelerate, brake, and change gears smoothly takes time and practice. This is quite similar to children learning to self-regulate. Some children are always pushing too hard on the accelerator, while others jump between gears quickly, and some are slow to accelerate. Children need time and support to master the ability to find and sustain their optimum speed and level of arousal while dealing with a range of stimuli and stressors.

As children develop motor skills and process sensory information they start to understand how their body can move slow, fast and all the speeds in between. Over time, children begin to learn to self-regulate and determine their "just right" body state that is ready to learn. **Too Slow, Just Right or Too Fast – Visual Supports for Self-Regulation** digital document includes 11 visual supports to help children practice self-regulation skills.

Use the visual supports to have children practice moving at different speeds to determine their "just right" state. If children have trouble processing sensory information, you can use the visual supports for them to respond and reflect on their current level of arousal.

Flow Theory in Psychology

We all want to experience it. It's intense, exhilarating, and satisfying. When we're in the zone, or what researchers call 'flow,' we feel invisible.

The theory behind flow is as popular as ever with researchers investigating its effects in several areas of our lives. They're looking at how flow affects us in sports, art, gaming, learning, and everyday athletics.

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi (Me-high Cheek-sent-me-high), the researcher who coined the term 'flow' discovered that people who experience flow tend to describe it similarly. There's a feeling of timelessness. The task seems easy and things just "come together."

He and his fellow researchers asked participants in their study to use pagers to communicate their thoughts and feelings at various times throughout their day. The initial study involved teenagers and while many reported unhappiness, Csikszentmihalyi noticed that when the teens were engaged in a challenging activity, their answers were more positive. \

This type of tracking is called the Experience Sampling Method in which participants answer a series of questions about their experience at the moment the pager beeps.

Here's how he explains flow and his research.

To better understand Flow Theory, we need to know Csikszentmihalyi's perspective regarding consciousness. He believes that we need to control our consciousness which in psychology is defined as:

"…the subjective experience of oneself and one's environment. This experience includes the awareness of one's feelings and emotions and the awareness of, and perceived control over, one's thoughts and behaviors."

For those familiar with Daniel Kahneman's book, Thinking Fast and Slow, we can call this System 2 processing. As this happens, we formulate emotions and thoughts that eventually lead to action or inaction by our bodies. Without System 2, as Cziksentmihalyi (1990) points out, our instincts and reflexes (System 1) would take over.

Another way to look at this is, we need to control how we interpret the events that become a part of our conscious experience. If we do this successfully, then we are more likely to experience greater happiness, and therefore more flow.

Researchers at Harvard (2016) believe they've located where consciousness is in our brains. While studying coma patients they discovered a connection between a small part of our brainstem and two cortical regions. When that portion of the brainstem is damaged, a disconnection occurs between the cortical regions. This is important because we need both arousal and awareness in order to experience consciousness.

System 1 represents arousal and System 2 is awareness. Think of this as our internal "checks and balances" as we navigate our environment.

Flow is the complete immersion in an activity that you deem enjoyable in some way. This doesn't mean that it's not challenging. In fact, the activity must challenge you just enough to push you.

Your skills must be tested. Flow activities excite us, provide intrinsic rewards, and help us develop our skills.

Flow is a feeling of exhilaration and bliss.

A key component of getting into flow is that we've voluntarily accepted the challenge we're attempting to solve. That's part of what makes it deeply enjoyable.

In Cziksentmihalyi's (1990) first edition of **Flow: The psychology of optimal experience**, he identified 9 ways through which we can achieve flow.

- Our bodies: Sex, dancing, and singing are a few examples. Later, Csikszentmihalyi (2008) classifies these as pleasurable, but not necessarily leading to flow.
- Our minds: Pushing ourselves to accomplish a difficult task like solving a math problem leads to satisfaction and enjoyment.
- Memories: Recalling enjoyable events allows us to relive our experience.
- Contemplating philosophical questions
- Communication: Conveying our thoughts to others and being understood can create a sense of profound enjoyment.
- Writing: This activity brings organization to our thoughts and is therefore enjoyable.
- Lifelong learning keeps us engaged in the activities we enjoy.
- A job: This works especially well if one is able to gamify one's job.
- Solitude: Being comfortable alone with our thoughts can lead to exciting discoveries about the topics we find most enjoyable.

We can experience flow throughout our day, or sadly not at all. It's a choice. That's the beauty of finding flow.

Cziksentmihalyi (2008) also describes the theory as involving nine major components. To experience flow is to experience a sense of euphoria.

They are:

- The task is just outside our grasp, but we believe we can reach it.
- We're able to focus all of our effort and attention on the task.
- Our goals are clearly defined.
- We receive immediate feedback (which includes course corrections.)
- Our time spent on the task seems effortless to us.
- We feel a sense of autonomy over our actions.
- Our focus isn't on ourselves.
- The experience is timeless.
- The experience is autotelic.

Difficulty achieving flow

- People who have psychiatric disorders like schizophrenia have difficulty because they can't ignore distractions from external stimuli. They're unable to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant information.
- Self-conscious people may lack the confidence necessary to pursue a challenging task.

- Self-centered people may lack the intrinsic motivation needed to doggedly pursue a challenge to completion.
- People who behave in ways that go against their goals (known as alienation) may not establish clearly defined objectives for their tasks.
- People who experience an environment in which the norms aren't clearly defined may become confused.

Who can achieve flow?

The short answer is almost everyone. Even many of the people mentioned above can learn to achieve flow. Cziksentmihalyi (1990) asserts that no one is permanently disadvantaged by their genetics.

Young and old can achieve flow. Have you ever watched a child playing a new sport, bumbling about, but then she gets control of the ball and scores?

Think of a time when you were focused on an activity you liked. It probably took 15–20 minutes for you to get into "your zone," but once you did, what happened? Maybe you were writing a short story or immersed in your favorite video game. Did you lose track of time? Did your writing come more easily to you? Were you able to reach higher and higher levels more rapidly?

People who experience flow regularly tend to be able to ignore irrelevant stimuli in their environments and enjoy themselves in a variety of situations because of their ability to filter. They also have more control over their thoughts. These individuals pay close attention to details which often helps them identify opportunities to act, set goals, gain feedback, and go after bigger challenges

Flow and Happiness

The connection of flow to happiness is an important one. In his book, Csikszentmihalyi sums it up this way:

“One of the most frequently mentioned dimensions of the flow experience is that, while it lasts, one is able to forget all the unpleasant aspects of life.”

Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi, Flow: The Psychology of Happiness

Rogatko (2009) studied positive affect (PA) in a group of undergraduate college students in Japan. The objective was to determine if a causal relationship existed between PA and flow. Students were assigned to either a low or high flow activity. The results support the theory that flow leads to PA.

The pursuit of flow experiences is the pursuit of happiness, but this happiness is eudemonic in nature, not hedonic.

It’s important to note that a single flow experience doesn’t automatically lead to other flow experiences, but for someone who has a clearly defined goal it can. If the goal is challenging enough and other goals flow from it, then it’s more likely that the person will have more flow experiences in various areas of her life. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) calls this a “unified flow experience.”

This means that the person is devoting all of her energy to acquiring the skills necessary to achieve the larger goal. This puts her thoughts, feelings, and actions into harmony. Everything she does fits into her larger goal whether it’s in the present moment or upon review of past events, actions, and experiences.

Flow and Positive Psychology

The study of flow falls within the area of happiness in Positive Psychology research. There are numerous topics covered in positive psychology including resilience, creativity, positive emotions, strengths, and mindfulness. The researcher's focus is driven by and concerned with how human beings thrive. Positive psychology researchers study how people lead meaningful and fulfilling lives.

Steven Kotler and Jamie Wheal are two men on a mission to explore the boundaries if there are any, of flow. They're immersing themselves in the subject and working with several organizations and businesses to study ultimate human performance.

10 Examples of Flow in Psychology

The number of examples one could list is very long. Here are several to spark your thinking.

- A graphic artist creating a website illustration or logo
- A writer completing a 2000-word scene in an hour
- A musician composing a song while commuting to work on a subway
- A skier navigating a challenging downhill course seemingly effortlessly
- The creation of a soufflé by a chef
- Solving a Rubik's Cube

- A pool player performing trick shots
- A pool player sinking all of their balls before their opponent steps up to shoot
- An hapkidoist executing expert joint locks
- A student studying for finals wearing noise-canceling headphones

Flow State in Sports Psychology

This is perhaps one of the most widely studied areas in positive psychology. How and when do athletes get “in the zone?” Most research is conducted using self-report surveys and the Experience Sampling Method (ESM) mentioned earlier and originally developed by Cziksentmihalyi.

Researchers have found a significant, positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and flow state among athletes. They’ve also learned that extrinsic motivation doesn’t significantly predict flow state (Kauffman, Soulliard, Perry, Montgomery, Hansen, Merz, & Ross, 2017).

Athletes and coaches want to find ways to get into flow faster and sustain the experience longer. This video provides useful information about flow, athletic performance, and a tool that could be used. (This isn’t an endorsement for their product. It’s simply an example of what could happen in the near future for athletes.)

Motivation and Flow Theory

Extrinsic motivation can be thought of as the “carrot and stick” approach to engagement in a task. Its effects are fleeting. As long as the person receives a reward and avoids a negative outcome, it works, but it does little to develop intrinsic motivation.

A prerequisite of attaining flow is voluntary engagement in a task that the person finds enjoyable. For tasks that are neither completely voluntary or enjoyable, the person may only work for satisfaction derived from external rewards.

When we’re in flow, we experience intrinsic motivation. We do whatever the task involves simply because it interests us, is enjoyable, provides a level of challenge that nearly matches our current skills, and for which we’re receiving immediate feedback.

Have you ever done a job and thought, “I’d do this even if they didn’t pay me?” You might be experiencing consistent and constant flow in that job. The satisfaction from doing the work motivates you to continue. You don’t need or care about recognition. It’s all about the work.

A Look at Flow Theory in Education

A survey conducted by **Youth Truth** between 2012-2017 that included 230,000 students in grades three through twelve, indicated that the majority of students feel engaged at school.

Sixty-eight percent of students in small schools (200 middle school — 300 high school students) reported being engaged compared to fifty-seven percent in large schools (800 middle school –1200+ high school). Smaller school size is associated with lower dropout rates, higher GPAs, better attendance, and higher graduation rates.

While numbers varied depending on level (elementary students were most engaged and high school students least) this is great news for flow researchers. An engaged student population is likely to experience more moments of flow.

The Effect of Flow on Learning

The idea of overlearning a task relates to flow. If you recall from the video above, our brains love repetition. That's essentially what overlearning a task is, and when we do a thing repeatedly for a period of time, we're more likely to experience flow.

Let's return to those gaming researchers — rather than use the usual questionnaires and scales, some researchers are beginning to use EEG machines to objectively study what's happening in the student's brain while engaged in an educational gaming activity. This is because self-reports are subjective.

One of the objectives of researchers in this field is to create a flow environment. They want to know if a student can be guided into a flow experience. It's not simply to determine if students experience flow while playing the game. When we're in flow, our learning speeds up.

Take this example:

Researchers wanted to know the effect of flow on EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition. They used the "Flow Perceptions Questionnaire," to assess if a relationship existed. Their results indicated that flow existed in the classroom and that there was a significant relationship between the level of flow, and vocabulary retention in immediate and delayed measurements (Amini, Ayari, & Amini, 2016).

Are open-plan schools hurting students' ability to achieve flow?

Given what research tells us about the negative effects of open-office designs, how does this affect students in a similar environment? Does flow become disrupted in open classroom designs, or does it encourage flow for students and teachers?

There's been a resurgence of open-plan school designs in the past few years in the US and elsewhere. Proponents believe the closed classroom concept is archaic and that children need to be able to explore and learn at their own pace. Opponents point to research like what's been mentioned in this article that shows the detrimental effects of open floor plans.

The most commonly studied issue is noise. Shield, Greenland, and Dockrell (2010) reviewed research spanning a 40-year period specifically related to this concern. The primary issue is noise coming from adjacent classes. They cite the need to install proper acoustic materials, the use of partitions, and coordinating with other teachers to minimize distraction.

What is Emotions: Physiological correlates Theories of emotions: James-Lange, Canon-Bard, Schachter and Singer, Lazarus, Lindsley. Emotion regulation?

Emotions: Physiological correlates Theories of emotions: James-Lange, Canon-Bard, Schachter and Singer, Lazarus, Lindsley. Emotion regulation

Emotions: Physiological correlates

According to most recent theories, human emotion is intrinsically tied to the concomitant activity of the autonomic nervous system. Empirical research has put forth an increasing number of indicators of physiological activity which are considered to be relevant for discriminating between specific subtypes of emotions (for a review, see Kreibig, 2010). One physiological indicator related to strong emotional experience is piloerection. In Charles Darwin's seminal work on “The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals” (1872), he already acknowledged that “hardly any expressive movement is so general as the involuntary erection of the hairs, feathers and other dermal appendages” (p. 95).

Piloerection, on the one hand, is known as a response to cold as a primary physical elicitor. In animals, the erection of coat hair or feathers serves to increase the isolation layer of air around the body. In humans, piloerection in response to cold is considered as a

relic of the thermoregulatory response of our furred ancestors in evolution (Campbell, 1996). On the other hand, piloerection is also known as a response to strong psychological elicitors. In animals, it can be observed in states of anger or anxiety

(Darwin, 1872), but it was also observed in the course of courtship of male chimpanzees (Nishida, 1997). In humans, the study of emotional piloerection (i.e., goose bumps) is tightly linked to the study of chills or thrills. While piloerection actually denotes the visible erection of body hair, the phenomenon of chills or thrills usually relates to a subjective experience.

This subjective experience is sometimes described by the sensation of 'shivers down the spine' and it was found to be a necessary but not sufficient concomitant of visible piloerection (Craig, 2005). However, it should be noted that piloerection and chills are sometimes also found to be used interchangeably in the scientific literature.

Psychophysiological correlates of subjectively reported piloerection

Music is also the most common stimulus in the study of psychophysiological correlates of piloerection-evoking experiences. Rickard (2004) compared emotionally powerful music (i.e., individually selected moving and personally meaningful music) to arousing music (i.e., music preselected to elicit high subjective and physiological arousal).

He showed that emotionally powerful music elicited more subjective responses of chills and higher skin conductance level (SCL), whereas the conditions did not differ significantly with respect to heart rate (HR) or skin temperature (ST). Craig (2005) found that music sections containing reports of chills were associated with

higher skin conductance response (SCR) amplitudes than sections preceding or following chills, but not with changes in ST. Guhn et al. (2007) identified music passages apt to elicit chill responses and found that participants who actually reported experiencing chills showed higher SCR amplitudes than those who did not; the groups did however not differ with respect to HR. Grewe et al. (2009) found that music episodes which elicited subjective reports of

chills were associated with increases in SCR amplitude, SCL, and HR but with no difference in respiratory rate (RR). In a similar study, Salimpoor et al. (2009) showed that music episodes which elicited subjective reports of chills resulted in higher SCL, HR, RR, and lower blood volume pulse amplitude and ST as compared to matched neutral episodes. In a positron emission tomography (PET) study,

Subject-Selected music, which reliably elicited subjective reports of chills, was compared to music that elicited chills in others (Blood and Zatorre, 2001). Chill music was associated with higher HR and RR but with no significant difference in electrodermal measures or ST. Moreover, cerebral blood flow related to chill intensity showed a pattern typical for processes involved in reward, euphoria and arousal, including ventral striatum, midbrain, amygdala, orbitofrontal cortex, and ventral medial prefrontal cortex.

Cognitive Theories of Emotions:

Two-Factor Theory The two-factor theory of emotion states that emotions are interactions of

(1) physiological arousal and

(2) the cognitive label that we apply to explain the arousal.

To demonstrate the two-factor theory, Schachter and Singer gave participants an injection of epinephrine that increases blood pressure, heart rate, blood flow to the brain, blood sugar levels and respirations. This was an artificial physiological arousal. Participants were given one of three explanations about the injection.

• correctly informed of the effects, or

• some were misinformed of the effects, or

• some were not informed at all.

All participants had a change in physiological arousal. What label do people ascribe to this arousal? • Those who were informed about the injection would understand their physiological changes and need not explain this arousal with an emotional response. • Those who had no explanation (the misinformed and uninformed group) for their physiological changes would use environmental cues to understand their arousal and explain it with an emotional response (e.g. happiness)

Misattribution of Emotional States According to the two-factor theory, when we are physiologically aroused, we try to understand the arousal and attribute it to emotions. In some instances, we misidentify the source and cause of our emotions. This process is unconscious and automatic. When people are physiologically aroused while riding an exercise bike, o They find attractive people more attractive o Annoying people more annoying o Funny cartoons funnier When people were physiologically aroused by walking over a bridge high above the ground (left panel), an interviewer they encountered was rated as more attractive compared to a bridge closer to the ground (right panel).

Situational Determinants of Aggression:

Heat

Media

Violence

Violent video games There are higher rates of violent crimes, but not non-violent crimes, as the number of days above 90 degrees Fahrenheit increase. This relationship still held when you took into account unemployment rates, per capita income and average age of the residents.

Examples of Scarcity:

• When Dade county banned phosphate based soaps, citizens smuggled phosphate soaps in from neighboring counties. They claimed that the phosphate based soaps cleaned their laundry better, and made their clothes smell fresher.

• Music by Kurt Cobain, Elvis, The Doors is valued more after their deaths.

• Paintings by Van Gogh, Monet, Picasso are valuable because they are scarce.

• Fantastic Four #1, X-men #94 or Spider-Man #1 are more expensive comic books because there are very few copies of them compared to later issues.

• The subjective value of Cabbage Patch dolls, Tickle me Elmo, and Play Station 2, Wii were inflated when the demand was high and the availability is low.

• In the Scientific American Frontiers video Fat and Happy, children are more likely to binge on junk food when they are provided the opportunity if they are restricted at home.

• A person who sells a used car, stereo, refrigerator, etc. can make the item appear “scarce” by scheduling people to view the item at the same time.

Student examples of Scarcity

I have a friend who finds he only wants to date women that are already married or have a serious boyfriend. It is like he becomes obsessed with trying to go out with them. Every once and a while a woman will break up with her boyfriend and start to date him, but then he finds them unappealing; there is no longer a challenge for him. They become too convenient.

The Cannon-Bard Theory of Emotion

The Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, also known as the Thalamic theory of emotion, is a physiological explanation of emotion developed by Walter Cannon and Philip Bard. Cannon-Bard theory states that we feel emotions and experience physiological reactions such as sweating, trembling, and muscle tension simultaneously.

How the Cannon-Bard Theory Works

More specifically, it is suggested that emotions result when the thalamus sends a message to the brain in response to a stimulus, resulting in a physiological reaction.[1]

For example: I see a snake --> I am afraid, and I begin to tremble.

According to the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, we react to a stimulus and experience the associated emotion at the same time. The physical reactions are not dependent upon the emotional reaction, or vice versa.[2]

When an event occurs, the thalamus transmits a signal to the amygdala. The amygdala is a small, oval-shaped structure in the brain that plays an important role in emotional processing, including emotions such as fear and anger. The thalamus also sends signals to the autonomic nervous system, resulting in physical reactions such as muscle tension, shaking, and sweating.

Examples

You can see how the Cannon-Bard theory might be applied by looking at any experience where you have an emotional reaction. While you might immediately think of negative emotional responses, it also applies to positive emotions as well.

A Frightening Experience

For example, imagine that you are walking to your car through a darkened parking garage. You hear the sounds of footsteps trailing behind you, and spot a shadowy figure slowly following you as you make your way to your car.

According to the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, you will experience feelings of fear and physical reaction at the same time. You will begin to feel fearful, and your heart will begin to race. You rush to your car, lock the doors behind you, and rush out of the parking garage to head home.

A New Job

Imagine that you are starting a new job. Your first day can be stressful. You'll be meeting new co-workers, making first impressions, learning more about your role, and participating in training or meetings. Cannon-Bard theory suggests that you would experience both physical and emotional signs of stress simultaneously. You might feel nervous and experience an upset stomach.

A Date

Imagine that you are going on a date with someone you recently met. You really like this person and are excited to spend time with them. You experience both physical and emotional responses, including feelings of happiness and excitement as well as sweaty palms and a rapid heartbeat.

James-Lange Theory

Cannon-Bard theory was formulated as a reaction to the James-Lange theory of emotion. Where James-Lange theory represented a physiological explanation for emotions, the Cannon-Bard theory represents and neurobiological approach.

William James's theory suggested that people first experience a physiological reaction in response to a stimulus in the environment. People then experience some sort of physiological reaction to this stimulus which is then labeled as an emotion.

For example, if you encounter a growling dog, you might begin to breathe rapidly and tremble. James-Lange theory would then suggest that you would label those feelings as fear.

Cannon's work instead suggested that emotions could be experienced even when the body does not reveal a physiological reaction. In other cases, he noted, physiological reactions to different emotions can be extremely similar.

Cannon and Bard instead suggested that the experience of emotion was not dependent upon interpreting the body's physiological reactions. Instead, they believed that the emotion and the physical response occur simultaneously and that one was not dependent upon the other.

Schacter-Singer Theory

Another more recent theory is the Schacter-Singer theory of emotion (also known as two-factor) theory, which takes a cognitive approach.

The Schacter-Singer theory draws on elements of both James-Lange theory and Cannon-Bard theory, proposing that physiological arousal occurs first but that such reactions are often similar for different emotions. The theory suggests that the physiological reactions must be cognitively labeled and interpreted as a particular emotion.

Criticisms

Criticisms suggest that Cannon-Bard theory places too much emphasis on the role that the thalamus plays in emotions while largely ignoring other parts of the brain. The thalamus is part of the limbic system and does play an important part in the experience of emotions, but more recent research suggests that the process is more complex than the Cannon-Bard theory suggests.

The basic assumption of Cannon-Bard theory, that physical reactions do not lead to emotions, has been refuted by a number of studies. Research has shown that when people are asked to make a particular facial expression, such as frowning or smiling, they are more likely to also experience an emotion connected to that expression.

KEY TAKEAWAYS

Key Points

- The appraisal theory of emotion proposes that emotions are extracted from our "appraisals" (i.e., our evaluations, interpretations, and explanations) of events. These appraisals lead to different specific reactions in different people.
- Psychologist Magda Arnold made early advancements in appraisal theory, proposing that an initial appraisal begins the emotional sequence by arousing both the appropriate physiological reactions and the emotional experience itself.
- In 1991, psychologist Richard Lazarus built on appraisal theory to develop cognitive -mediational theory. This theory still asserts that our emotions are determined by our appraisal of the stimulus, but it suggests that immediate, unconscious appraisals mediate between the stimulus and the emotional response.
- Lazarus also distinguished between primary appraisal, which seeks to establish the significance or meaning of an event, and secondary appraisal, which assesses the ability of the individual to cope with the consequences of the event.

Richard Lazarus

Psychologist Richard Lazarus (1991) adapted Arnold's work slightly in the development of his cognitive-mediational theory, which asserts our emotions are determined by our appraisals of stimuli. This appraisal mediates between the stimulus and the emotional response, and it is immediate and often unconscious. In contrast to the Schachter–Singer theory of emotions,

which views emotion as an outcome of the interaction between physiological arousal and cognition, Lazarus argued that the appraisal precedes cognitive labeling, simultaneously stimulating both the physiological arousal and the emotional experience itself.

Lazarus argued that the cognitive activity involved in interpreting emotional context could be conscious or unconscious and may or may not take the form of conceptual processing. He stressed that the quality and intensity of emotions are controlled through cognitive processes, which mediate the relationship between the person and the environment through coping strategies, which in turn are the basis of the emotional reaction.

In his research, Lazarus specified two major types of appraisal methods: 1) primary appraisal, which seeks to establish the significance or meaning of an event, and 2) secondary appraisal, which assesses the ability of the individual to cope with the consequences of the event. In the specific context of emotion and stress, Lazarus described primary appraisals as judgments about the degree of potential harm or threat to well-being that a stressor might introduce. The perception of a threat then triggers the secondary appraisal—judgment of the options available to cope with the stressor—as well as perceptions of how effective such options will be.

Emotion Regulation

While there are many ways to influence one's emotional state for the better, emotion regulation often involves what experts call "down-regulation," or reducing the intensity of emotions. A grieving person might down-regulate his sadness by recalling something amusing. An anxious person may cope by distracting herself from the thought that is causing her anxiety. Emotion regulation can also include "up-regulation," or amping up one's emotions, which can be useful when an imminent danger or challenge calls for a healthy dose of anxiety or excitement.

The process model of emotion regulation proposed by psychologist James Gross emphasizes that people can act to control their emotions at different points in time—including before they feel an emotion ("antecedent-focused emotion regulation") and after they have already begun to react emotionally ("response-focused emotion regulation").

Emotion Regulation Is Important

Unlike small children, adults are expected to be able to manage their emotions—especially anxiety and anger—in a manner that is socially acceptable. When emotional control fails, people often say or do things they later regret and wish they had been able to keep their emotions in check. Emotion dysregulation is a component of certain forms of mental illness. Over time, it could have a negative impact on one's personal well-being and social relationships.

Emotion dysregulatio

"Emotion dysregulation" is the term used to describe an inability to regularly use healthy strategies to diffuse or moderate negative emotions. While all people occasionally use less than ideal emotion regulation strategies, individuals who regularly experience what feels like overwhelming, intense negative emotions are much more likely to rely on unhealthy strategies, like self-injury.

What causes emotions to feel so overwhelming? It is really important to note that the experience of an emotion per se is not what leads to difficulties. It is the interpretation of this emotion that tends to ratchet up feelings and a sense of not being able to tolerate them. We call this a "vicious emotional cycle." Emotions, thoughts, and our behavior are all linked together.

For instance, consider this common scenario: A friend walks right past you in the hallway without acknowledging you and you immediately have a rapid fire set of feelings, like confusion or disappointment or self-doubt or anger, that turns quickly into a series of thoughts about that event (e.g., "What did I do wrong?""I'll bet that she is mad at me for that thing that happened a few weeks ago…""I am sure it was nothing, I am being oversensitive, she was probably in a hurry somewhere. But still…").

This initial cascade can lead to intense or acute feelings (e.g., frustration, panic, insecurity) and you may have a strong desire to not be feeling the negative feelings coming up. This desire turns into action: you do something (e.g., go home and dwell on it; stop communicating with your friend; get a tasty treat to make you feel better or take your mind off it). Sounds familiar?

This cycle can become vicious and/or a typical go-to pattern over time. Unless something is done to change the cycle, continued

avoidance of the feelings associated with that friend or event may lead to additional negative thoughts and feelings about that person. This further supports one's initial interpretation of the event and can then lead to even more negative thoughts and feelings (e.g. "Our friendship is ending;

she never really liked me anyway. What will happen if she shares what she knows about me to others? Will I lose more friends?? Oh no, it is all happening again!").

It is easy to see how even a small event can cascade into something hugely triggering. This cycle can be even more intense when the events that occur are more serious or somehow tie into earlier negative experiences, like trauma or abuse.

What is Conflicts: Sources and types

Stress and Coping: Concept, Models, Type A, B, C, D behaviors, Stress management strategies [Biofeedback, Music therapy, Breathing exercises, Progressive Muscular Relaxation, Guided Imagery, Mindfulness, Meditation, Yogasana, Stress Inoculation Training]?

Conflicts: Sources and types

Stress and Coping: Concept, Models, Type A, B, C, D behaviors, Stress management strategies [Biofeedback, Music therapy, Breathing exercises, Progressive Muscular Relaxation, Guided Imagery, Mindfulness, Meditation, Yogasana, Stress Inoculation Training]

Stress and Coping: Concept, Models, Type A, B, C, D behaviors,

Conflicts are natural in all walks of daily life – both at workplace and home. Thus, conflict is ever present and both charming and maddening. But conflict is a complex and big subject. There are many sources of conflict. Conflict occurs when individuals or groups are not obtaining what they need or want and are seeking their own self-interest.

Sometimes the individual is not aware of the need and unconsciously starts to act out. Other times, the individual is very aware of what he or she wants and actively works at achieving the goal. It would be better to identify conflict at an early stage and come to an understanding.

The concept of conflict is controversial. Psychologists and sociologists have given different meanings. It is being defined as a process by few, an obstructive behavior, and goal incompatibility by others. Conflict can be expressed as:

Conflict is a process, where perception (real or otherwise) leads to disruption of desirable state of harmony and stability in an interdependent world.

Characteristics of Conflict:

1. Conflict is a Process:

Conflict occurs in 'layers'. First layer is always misunderstanding. The other layers are differences of values, differences of viewpoint, differences of interest, and interpersonal differences. It is also called a process because it begins with one party perceiving the other to oppose or negatively affect its interests and ends with competing, collaborating, compromising or avoiding.

2. Conflict is Inevitable:

Conflict exists everywhere. No two persons are the same. Hence they may have individual differences. And the differences may be because of values or otherwise, lead to conflict. Although inevitable, conflict can be minimized, diverted and/or resolved. Conflict develops because we are dealing with people's lives, jobs, children, pride, self-concept, ego and sense of mission. Conflict is inevitable and often good, for example, good teams always go through a "form, storm, norm and perform" period.

3. Conflict is a Normal Part of Life:

Individuals, groups, and organisations have unlimited needs and different values but limited resources. Thus, this incompatibility is bound to lead to conflicts. The conflict is not a problem, but if it is poorly managed then it becomes a problem.

4. Perception:

It must be perceived by the parties to it, otherwise it does not exist. In interpersonal interaction, perception is more important than reality. What we perceive and think affects our behaviour, attitudes, and communication.

5. Opposition:

One party to the conflict must be perceiving or doing something the other party does not like or want.

6. Interdependence and Interaction:

There must be some kind of real or perceived interdependence. Without interdependence there can be no interaction. Conflict occurs only when some kind of interaction takes place.

7. Everyone is inflicted with Conflict:

Conflict may occur within an individual, between two or more individuals, groups or between organisations.

8. Conflict is not Unidimensional:

It comes into different ways in accordance with degree of seriousness and capacity. At times, it may improve even a difficult situation.

Concept of Conflict Management:

'Conflict management is the principle that all conflicts cannot necessarily be resolved, but learning how to manage conflicts can decrease the odds of non-productive escalation. Conflict management involves acquiring skills related to conflict resolution, self-awareness about conflict modes, conflict communication skills, and establishing a structure for management of conflict in your

environment.' All members of every organisation need to have ways of keeping conflict to a minimum – and of solving problems caused by conflict, before conflict becomes a major obstacle to your work.

Types of Conflict:

Conflicts can be of different types as described below:

On the basis of involvement:

Conflicts may be intrapersonal (conflict with self), interpersonal (between two persons) and organisational. Organizational conflict, whether real or perceived, is of two types -intraorganizational and interorganizational. Interorganizational conflict occurs between two or more organizations.

Different businesses competing against each other are a good example of interorganizational conflict. Intraorganizational conflict is the conflict within an organization, and can be examined based upon level (e.g. department, work team, individual), and can be classified as interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup.

Interpersonal conflict-once again-whether it is substantive or affective, refers to conflict between two or more individuals (not representing the group of which they are a part of) of the same or different group at the same or different level, in an organization.

Interpersonal conflict can be divided into intergroup and intergroup conflict. While the former— intragroup-occurs between members of a group (or between subgroups within a group), intergroup-occurs between groups or units in an organization.

On the basis of Scope:

Conflicts may be substantive and Affective. A substantive conflict is associated with the job, not individuals, while an affective conflict is drawn from emotions. Substantive conflicts may be over the facts of a situation, the method or means of achieving a solution to the problem, ends or goals, and values. Thus it includes task conflict and process conflict in its scope.

Procedural conflicts can include disagreements about factors such as meeting dates and times, individual task assignments, group organization and leadership, and methods of resolving disagreements. Unresolved procedural conflicts can prevent work on collaborative projects. Substantive conflict can enhance collaborative decision-making. Substantive conflict is also called performance, task, issue, or active conflict.

On the other hand, an affective conflict (also called as relationship or opposite of agreeable conflict) deals with interpersonal relationships or incompatibilities and centres on emotions and frustration between parties.

Affective conflicts can be very destructive to the organisation, if remains unresolved. Relationship conflict comes under the scope of affective conflicts. An affective conflict is nearly always disruptive to collaborative decision-making. The conflict causes members to be negative, irritable, suspicious, and resentful.

For example, when collaborators disagree on the recognition and solution to a task problem because of personal prejudices (e.g. prejudices stemming from strong social, political, economic, racial, religious, ethnic, philosophical, or interpersonal biases) they are seldom able to focus on the task.

On the basis of Results:

Conflict can be Constructive or Destructive, creative or restricting, and positive or negative. Destructive conflicts are also known as dysfunctional conflicts, because such conflicts prevent a group from attaining its goals.

Conflict is destructive when it takes attention away from other important activities, undermines morale or self-concept, polarises people and groups, reduces cooperation, increases or sharpens difference, and leads to irresponsible and harmful behaviour, such as fighting, name-calling.

On the other hand, constructive conflicts are also known as functional conflicts, because they support the group goals and help in improving performance. Conflict is constructive when it results in clarification of important problems and issues, results in solutions to problems, involves people in resolving issues important to them, causes authentic communication, helps release emotion, anxiety, and stress, builds cooperation among people through learning more about each other; joining in resolving the conflict, and helps individuals develop understanding and skills.

On the basis of Sharing by Groups:

Conflicts may be Distributive and Integrative. Distributive conflict is approached as a distribution of a fixed amount of positive outcomes or resources, where one side will end up winning and the other losing, even if they do win some concessions.

On the other hand, integrative – Groups utilizing the integrative model see conflict as a chance to integrate the needs and concerns of both groups and make the best outcome possible. This type of conflict has a greater emphasis on compromise than the distributive conflict. It has been found that the integrative conflict results in

consistently better task related outcomes than the distributive conflict.

On the basis of Strategy:

Conflicts may be competitive and cooperative. Competitive conflict is accumulative. The original issue that began the conflict becomes irrelevant. The original issue is more of a pretext than a cause of the conflict. Competitive conflict is marked by the desire to win the fight or argument, even if winning costs more and causes more pain than not fighting at all.

Costs do not matter in competitive conflict, and therefore, irrationality remains its main mark. Competitive conflict is characterized by fear, which is one of the important ingredients in a conflict becoming irrational. If one is personally invested in the outcome, this too leads to irrational conclusions, especially if issues of self-esteem, whether personal or national, are involved.

Competitive conflict can either begin by, or be rationalized by, conflicts of ideology or principle. Even more, when the desire to win overtakes any specific reason for the conflict, irrationally develops.

Importantly in history, when powers are roughly equal, such as the World War I alliances were, conflict that becomes competitive and irrational nearly always develops. In economic competition customers are the winners and the firms may be at risk. But in sports competition is encouraged.

In a cooperative situation the goals are so linked that everybody ‘sinks or swims’ together, while in the competitive situation if one swims, the other must sink. A cooperative approach aligns with the process of interest-based or integrative bargaining, which leads

parties to seek win-win solutions. Disputants that work cooperatively to negotiate a solution are more likely to develop a relationship of trust and come up with mutually beneficial options for settlement.

On the basis of Rights and Interests:

Conflict of rights means where people are granted certain rights by law or by contract or by previous agreement or by established practice. If such a right is denied, it will lead to conflict. Such a conflict is settled by legal decision or arbitration, not negotiation.

On the other hand conflict of interests means where a person or group demands certain privileges, but there is no law or right in existence. Such a dispute can be settled only through negotiation or collective bargaining.

Stages of Conflict:

A manager must know various stages of conflict to handle it. The solution to conflict becomes easy before it becomes serious, if he knows of the real issue behind the conflict and how the conflict developed. Normally a conflict passes through the following stages:

a. People recognise lack of resources, diversity of language or culture. Sensitiveness may possibly result in conflict.

b. If there are serious differences between two or among more than two groups, the latent conflict in a competitive situation may turn out into conflict.

c. An incident may trigger a latent conflict into an open conflict

d. Once a problem has been solved, the potential for conflict still remains in the aftermath. In fact the potential is bigger than before,

if one party perceives that the resolution has resulted into win-lose situation.

Are Conflicts Bad and Undesirable?

There are three viewpoints. The traditionalists view conflict as bad and be avoided. In most of the cultures, this is what is being taught – 'If you cannot speak well, keep mum',' don't fight with anyone', and alike.

The followers of human relations school opine that conflict is natural and can be functional at sometime and dysfunctional at other time. According to them, conflict provides an avenue to know of opinions and an opportunity for creativity and persuasion. Thus, it calls for an open approach to conflict.

The integrationists view conflict as inevitable and stimulating conflict to some extent is helpful. Conflict is viewed as a positive force except that when it is misdiagnosed, mismanaged, or improperly avoided.

We are of the opinion that conflicts are inevitable, not always bad or the same as discomfort, but key to them is proper diagnosis and their resolution. Conflict is often needed as it-

a. Helps to raise and address problems,

b. Energizes work to be on the most appropriate issues,

c. Helps people "be real", for example, it motivates them to participate, and

d. Helps people learn how to recognize and benefit from their differences.

Conflict becomes a problem when it:

a. Hampers productivity,

b. Lowers morale,

c. Causes more and continued conflicts, and

d. Causes inappropriate behaviours.

Conflict Indicators:

a. Body language

b. Colleagues not speaking to each other or ignoring each other

c. Deliberately undermining or not co-operating with each other, to the downfall of the team

d. contradicting and bad-mouthing one another

e. Disagreements, regardless of issue

f. Withholding bad news

g. Surprises

h. Strong public statements

i. Airing disagreements through media

j. Conflicts in value system

k. Desire for power

l. Increasing lack of respect

m. Open disagreement

n. Lack of candour on budget problems or other sensitive issues

o. Lack of clear goals

p. No discussion of progress, failure relative to goals, failure to evaluate the superintendent fairly, thoroughly or at all

q. Factions meeting to discuss issues separately, when they affect the whole organisation

r. One group being left out of organising an event which should include everybody

s. Groups using threatening slogans or symbols to show that their group is right and the others are wrong.

Causes/ Reasons/Sources of Conflicts:

Conflicts may be caused by any one or more of the following reasons:

Cognitive (Recognition and Understanding) Dissonance (Difference of opinion):

It is a conflict between convergent (ability to narrow the number of possible solutions to a problem by applying logic and knowledge) and divergent thinking (thinking outwards instead of inward).

Status:

Status is a state, condition, or situation. When there is a need for status and a “wrong” person is promoted.

Incongruence:

A party is required to engage in an activity that is incongruent with his or her needs or interests.

Incompatibility:

A party holds behavioural preferences like attitudes, values, skills, goals, and perceptions, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person's implementation of his or her preferences. Economics: Insufficient remuneration to employees.

Stress:

Conflicts from stress from external sources; i.e., functional or dysfunctional situations.

Poor or Inadequate Organisational Structure and Lack of Teamwork.

Seeking Power:

Often a conflict for power struggle takes place when everyone wants to be a leader and nobody wants to be a follower.

Weak Leadership:

Conflict is bound to result if someone of less stature leads a more qualified and experienced worker.

Arbitrary interpretation and application of rules and policies: Lack of transparency and openness creates dissatisfaction among the affected people.

Differing viewpoints among colleagues about each other:

In case of joint action two parties may have partially exclusive behavioural preferences.

Managerial Actions:

Poor communication (employees being not informed of new decisions, programmes etc., not involved in decision making, and

rumor mongering allowed); insufficient resources (Disagreement on allotment of work, stress from inadequate financial, equipment, facilities, and other resources and privileges); absence of personal chemistry between managers and employees (both sides having rigidity, dislike for absence of self- traits); lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities, arbitrariness in employees' performance appraisal; weak leadership, and inconsistent, too-strong, or uninformed leadership (lack of openness, buck-passing with little follow-through, lingering on issues, first-line managers failing to understand their subordinates' jobs). All these factors cause dissatisfaction.

Conflict Management Styles:

Conflict management must aim at minimizing affective conflicts at all levels, attain and maintain a moderate amount of substantive conflict, and also to match the status and concerns of the two parties in conflict.

Many styles of conflict management behavior have been researched in the past century. Mary Parker Follett described them as domination, compromise, and integration (involves openness, exchanging information, looking for alternatives, and examining differences to solve the problem in a manner that is acceptable to both parties).

Stress: Coping With Life's

Coping usually involves adjusting to or tolerating negative events or realities while attempting to maintain your positive self-image and emotional equilibrium. Coping occurs in the context of life changes that are perceived to be stressful. Psychological stress is usually

associated with negative life changes, such as losing a job or loved one. However, because all changes require some sort of adaptation, even positive changes, such as getting married or having a child, can be stressful.

Changes are stressful because changes require us to adjust and to adapt. Experiencing too many changes within a brief time period often creates a perception that we are not in control of important events. This perception contributes to low self-esteem and may even contribute to the development of anxiety or depression. In some cases, physical illnesses may develop or be exacerbated when a person's capacity to adapt to change is overwhelmed by too much change.

Coping involves adjusting to unusual demands, or stressors, and thus requires the mobilization of greater effort and the use of greater energy than is required by the daily routines of life. Prolonged mobilization of effort can contribute to elevated levels of stress-related hormones and to eventual physical breakdown and illness.

Stressors that require coping may be acute, such as a change in residence or onset of marital problems. Stressors also occur that are of longer duration, such as chronic pain, chronic illness, or enduring financial problems.

The effect of many acute stressors that occur within a relatively brief period of time may be cumulative and profound. Thus, the individual who experiences a marital separation, the death of an aging parent, and a change in his or her job within a brief period of time may find himself or herself struggling to adjust to maintain his or her physical and emotional health.

What are some common coping strategies?

Some common coping mechanisms include:

- Lowering your expectations
- Asking others to help or assist you
- Taking responsibility for the situation
- Engaging in problem solving
- Maintaining emotionally supportive relationships
- Maintaining emotional composure or, alternatively, expressing distressing emotions
- Challenging previously held beliefs that are no longer adaptive
- Directly attempting to change the source of stress
- Distancing yourself from the source of stress
- Viewing the problem through a religious perspective

Experts agree that coping is a process rather than an event. Thus, an individual may alternate between several of the above coping strategies in order to cope with a stressful event.

Individuals differ in particular styles of coping or preferences for using certain coping strategies over others. These differences in coping styles are usually reflective of differences in personality. Rigidity in coping is less likely to produce a desirable outcome than is flexibility in coping, or being able to fit the most appropriate coping strategy to the demands of different situations.

It should be noted, however, that some situations that require coping are likely to elicit similar coping responses from most people. For example, work-related stressors are more likely to elicit

problem-solving strategies. Stressors that are perceived to be changeable are more likely to elicit problem-solving strategies while stressors perceived to be unchangeable are more likely to elicit social support seeking and emotion-focused strategies.

What can we do to protect ourselves against stress and therefore enhance our prospects for successful coping? Perhaps the most important strategy is to maintain emotionally supportive relationships with others. A vast field of research demonstrates that emotional support buffers individuals against the negative impact of stress.

It is especially important to evaluate your overall lifestyle when encountering significant stress. Engaging in stress-reducing activities can also be a helpful overall approach to coping with stressors. Examples include:

- Getting enough good quality sleep
- Eating a well-balanced diet
- Exercising on a regular basis
- Taking brief rest periods during the day to relax
- Taking vacations away from home and work
- Engaging in pleasurable or fun activities every day
- Practicing relaxation exercises such as yoga, prayer, meditation, or progressive muscle relaxation
- Avoiding use of caffeine and alcohol

Coping skills

The transactional **model** of stress and coping developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1987) explained coping as a phenomenon that involves both cognitive and behavioral responses that individuals use in an attempt to manage internal and/or external stressors perceived to exceed their personal resources. It is safe to say that coping with stressful and anxiety-provoking situations is first on the list of an athlete's job description; and failure to do so will most likely result in subpar athletic performance. Omar-Fauzee, Daud, Abdullah, and Rashid (2009) observed that athletes at various at various levels of sport participation made use of a variety of effective coping strategies to help deal with the multiple stressors they encounter.

The Athletic Coping Skills Inventory (ACSI-28) developed by Smith, Schultz, Smoll, and Ptacek (1995) is a popular self-report measure used to assess the various coping techniques implemented by athletes. The ACSI-28 measures the following domains: Coping with Adversity, Peaking Under Pressure, Goal Setting and Mental Preparation, Concentration, Freedom from Worry, Confidence and Achievement Motivation, and Coachability. Spieler et al.

(2007) studied coping differences between starters and non-staring collegiate varsity football players and concluded that when combined with other factors such as size of high school when growing up as well as age, athletes who were part of the starting line-up scored higher on the Coping with Adversity domain.

THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY TYPES ON INDIVIDUALS WORK-RELATED BEHAVIORS

In literature, it is seen thatpersonality psychologists are interested inhuman wholeness, and attempt to reveal out the complexity of

human behaviors (Esmaeilpour et al., 2013: 405). Because personality is considered as a crucial component underlying human behaviors, researchers have focused on personality traits. Personality traits affectindividuals' perceptions, appraisal of the environment, their emotional responses and attitudes. However, it is suggested that personality traits are examined as an important determinant of individuals' workplace behaviors (Kozako et al., 2013: 182).

For instance, whereas some people have positive and strong personality traits, others may have negative and weak traits which lead them to exhibit some favorable or undesirable work-related behaviors. Accordingly, this study aims to present some effects of Type A, B, C and D personalities on positive and negative work-related behaviors. Further, it purposes a classification as to which personality type results in negative or positive behaviors in workplaces. Type Aindividuals are often regarded "workaholics" as they take over multi-tasks and are strongly motivated to do extra work and to achieve success (Radsepehr et al., 2016: 2).

Related to these characteristics of Type A, it is possible to express that they experience increased performance and increased job satisfaction. However, even several researchers have examined the relationship between Type A and job satisfaction, results have been inconsistent and controversial. For example, the studies byAl-Mashaan(2001) and; Yazici and Altun (2013) found a positive correlation between

Type A and job satisfaction. On the other hand, Jamal and Baba (2001); Kirkcaldy et al., (2002) and Bockhaus et al., (2012)report that Type A individuals have lower levels of job satisfaction. In addition, as Type A's have a competitive and ambitious nature, they

are expected to exhibit aggressive behaviors in interpersonal relations at work (Batıgün and Şahin, 2006: 2). Vera-Villarroel et al. (2004); Faunce et al. (2004) and Mohan and Singh (2016) asserted that Type A personality characteristics are positively related to aggressive and hostile behaviors. In consideration of positive work behaviors, Sameenand Burhan (2014)andHussein (2014) have indicated that Type A individuals tend to exhibit creative behaviors than others.

Due to Type A individuals prefer undertaking excessive responsibilities and new challenges, working under time pressure and have a greater commitment to their roles, it is expected that these individuals engage to their works (Baka and Derbis, 2012: 134). Studies of Hallberg et al., (2007); Moodley (2010); Baka and Derbis (2012) suggest that there is a positive relationship between Type A characteristics and work engagement. Consequently, it can be said that Type A individuals may exhibit both positive and negative work behaviors.

Type B individuals are considered easygoing and moderate thanks to their personality characteristics. For example, it can be said that Type B individuals are more flexible and can easily adapt to changing conditions easily (Radsepehr et al., 2016: 3). However, Type B's are regarded as the opposite of Type A individuals.

In other words, they have a desire to be successful, but they are not excessively ambitious or competitiveas Type A individuals are. Due to theirfondness for being comfortable, they do their workat the last minutes, and even procrastinate. It can be expressed that Type B individuals exhibit procrastination behaviors more often in their work life (Hussein, 2014: 2). Therefore, it can be inferred that Type B individuals use their

time poorly and can not make efficient time schedules (Hisam et al., 2014: 1305). Type B individuals have better communication skills than Type A's, so they can easily communicate with others (Tokat el al., 2013: 1978). Thanks to Type B's good communication skills, they are supported others and are more likely to express their feelings. Moreover, as Type B's have no eyes on greater success, high positions and extreme gains, they are expected to be satisfied with their jobs (Darshani, 2014: 2).

On the other hand, because Type B individuals pay no attention to the time scheduling, they may spend more hours in their workplace for their co-workers and companies. In other words, they tend to participate in non-compulsory activities or roles and tend to display non-discretionary behaviors.

Type C personality is regarded as a part of negative personality traits based on the individuals' some characteristics like incapability, non-assertiveness and passiveness. However, Type C individuals possess some positive traits such as dedicated focus on other people, exhibit cooperative behaviors and tendency to comply with external environment (Denollet, 1998: 981).

Type C's seem kind, obedient, well-mannered, pragmatic and normative people who are preferred by others in work and social life (Durai, 2010: 390). On the other hand, these individuals considered as introvert and intelligent people who are interested in details, like to discover new things and are eager to achieve a successful career in the professional life (Ansari et al., 2013: 1004).

Moreover, type C individuals are obsessed with making visionary dreams come true and regarded as creative people (Atchity, 2012: 16). Therefore, it can be expressed that due to their altruisticand

sensitive side, Type C's may display helping behaviors, cooperative and organizational citizenship behaviors and feel engaged in their work roles more than the others in the working environment. In addition, these individuals have more dispositions to exhibit creative behaviors thanks to their imaginations. From the pessimistic perspective, it is possible to infer that because of their negative emotions, type C's easily get unhappy and dissatisfied with their jobs. Thus, it is expected that their job performance, motivation and commitment levels decrease.

Type D or distressed personality examined in the extent of other negative personality traits due to the characteristics of negative and pessimistic view in all field of life, feeling of anxious, unsatisfying and always experience negative emotions. Owing to these characteristics lead Type D individuals build fewer friendly relationships, have fewer friends and feel uncomfortable with strangers in work and social life (Radsepehr et al., 2016: 3-4).Depending on these fewer social relationships,

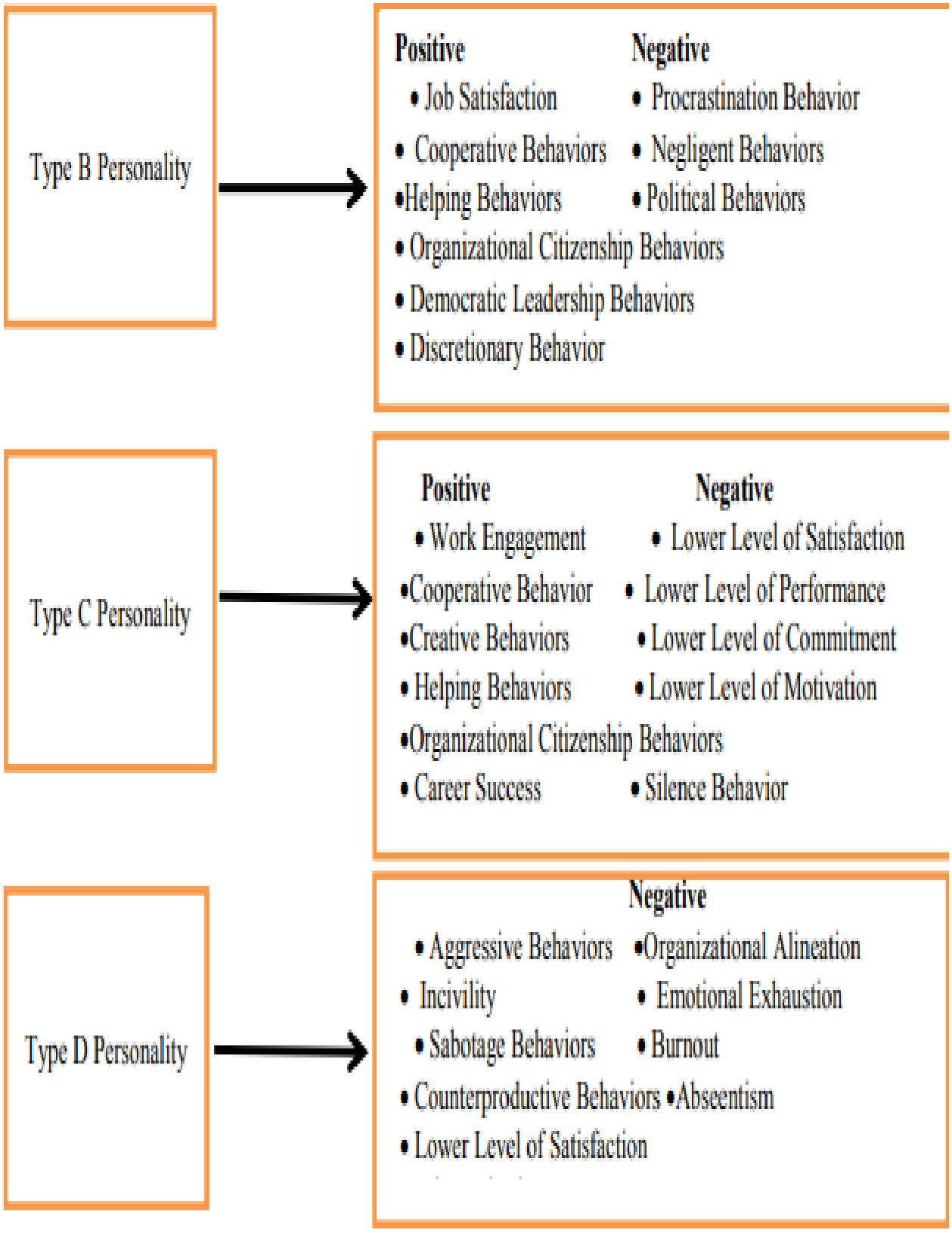
they perceive lower levels of social support from others in their professionallives(Tekin et al., 2017: 173). However, Type D individuals feel tense and insecure in the working environment which causes them to keep other people at a distance. In the literature, studies suggest that

Type D individuals suffer from higher levels of social alienation from their family members, friends and working colleagues (Ginting et al., 2016: 728). In addition, researchers assert that Type D individuals get exhausted much more quickly than othersand feel disengaged to their work. Therefore, it can be concluded that Type D individuals' experience adverse work-related outcomes such as higher burnout, higher work-related stress and substantial problems in interacting

with co-workers and managers (Reid, 2013: 9). Besides, it is asserted that Type D's are more absent from their works due to the physical and psychological illness, show a lower sense of personal accomplishment and perceive adverse working conditions (Mols and Denollet, 2010: 4- 6).

Besides, it can be noted that Type D individuals are expected to display some negative work-related behaviors such as abseentism, incivility, sabotage and aggressive behaviors and counterproductive behaviors (Kanten et al., 2017: 605). When the literature has been reviewed, it can be said that personality types cause some positive and negative work-related outcomes.

Accordingly, this study aims to explain Type A, B, C, D personality's positive and negative effects on employees' attitudes and behaviors.


Type B Personality
Positive
Job Satisfaction
Cooperative Behaviors
Helping Behaviors
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
Democratic Leadership Behaviors
Discretionary Behavior
Negative
Procrastination Behavior
Negligent Behaviors
Political Behaviors
Type C Personality
Positive
Work Engagement
Cooperative Behavior
Creative Behaviors
Helping Behaviors
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
Career Success
Negative
Lower Level of Satisfaction
Lower Level of Performance
Lower Level of Commitment
Lower Level of Motivation
Silence Behavior
Type D Personality
Negative
Aggressive Behaviors
Incivility
Sabotage Behaviors
Counterproductive Behaviors
Lower Level of Satisfaction
Organizational Alineation
Emotional Exhaustion
Burnout
Absenteism

Stress Management Tips

People can learn to manage stress and lead happier, healthier lives. Here are some tips to help you keep stress at bay.

- Keep a positive attitude.
- Accept that there are events that you cannot control.
- Be assertive instead of aggressive. Assert your feelings, opinions, or beliefs instead of becoming angry, defensive, or passive.
- Learn and practice relaxation techniques; try meditation, yoga, or tai-chi for stress management.
- Exercise regularly. Your body can fight stress better when it is fit.
- Eat healthy, well-balanced meals.
- Learn to manage your time more effectively.
- Set limits appropriately and learn to say no to requests that would create excessive stress in your life.
- Make time for hobbies, interests, and relaxation.
- Get enough rest and sleep. Your body needs time to recover from stressful events.
- Don't rely on alcohol, drugs, or compulsive behaviors to reduce stress.

- Seek out social support. Spend enough time with those you enjoy.
- Seek treatment with a psychologist or other mental health professional trained in stress management or biofeedback techniques to learn healthy ways of dealing with the stress in your life.

Biofeedback

Biofeedback is a mind-body technique that involves using visual or auditory feedback to gain control over involuntary bodily functions such as blood flow, blood pressure, and heart rate. This technique may be used to help alleviate symptoms of conditions including high blood pressure, chronic stress, headaches, pain, and anxiety.

The goal of biofeedback is often to make subtle changes to the body that result in a desired effect. This might include relaxing certain muscles slowing heart rate or reducing feelings of pain. Some of the functions that people can learn to control include:

- Blood flow
- Blood pressure
- Heart rate
- Muscle tension
- Pain perception

By doing this, people are often able to improve their physical, emotional, and mental health. For example, biofeedback can also be used to help people better manage the symptoms of a condition.

The Association for Applied Psychophysiology and Biofeedback defines biofeedback as a process that allows people to alter their physiological activity in order to improve health or performance.[1] Utilizing precise measurement instruments, information about the body's functions are provided to the user.

Types of Biofeedback

There are many different types of biofeedback. The specific approach you choose to utilize might depend upon what you hope to accomplish and what your therapist or physician recommends. Some of the available options include:

Breathing

Respiratory biofeedback involves wearing sensor bands around the chest and abdomen to monitor breathing rates and patterns. With training, people can learn to have greater control over their breathing rates which can help in a variety of situations including when people experience anxiety.

Heart Rate

This type is known as heart rate variability biofeedback and there is some evidence that it might possibly be useful for a number of different disorders including asthma and depression.[2] Patients using this type of biofeedback wear a device connected to sensors in either the ears or fingers or sensors placed on the wrists, chest, or torso.

Galvanic Skin Response

This type of biofeedback involves measuring the amount of sweat on the surface of the skin. Galvanic skin response, also known as skin conductance, is a useful marker for detecting levels of emotional arousal.

Aside from the obvious thermoregulatory function of sweat, emotional stimulation can also easily trigger sweating. The more strongly people are aroused, the stronger their skin conductance will be.

Blood Pressure

This type of biofeedback involves wearing a device that measures blood pressure. These devices provide information about the patient's blood pressure and often guide the user through relaxation techniques that may rely on visual cues, breathing exercises, or music.

While such devices have gained popularity, one study reviewing eight previous trials did not find convincing evidence that this type of biofeedback has any lasting long-term impact on hypertension.[3]

Skin Temperature

In this form of biofeedback, patients wear sensors that detect blood flow to the skin. Because people often experience a drop in body temperature during times of stress, such devices can help people better detect when they are starting to feel distressed. A low reading on one of these monitors can indicate a need to utilize some stress management techniques.

Brain Waves

This type of biofeedback, often referred to as neurofeedback, involves utilizing electroencephalography (EEG) to measure brain wave activity. Scalp sensors are connected to an EEG device. Neurofeedback is sometimes used as a non-invasive treatment for ADHD, pain, addiction, anxiety, depression, and other disorders.

Muscle Tensbion

In this type of biofeedback, sensors are placed at various points on the body and connected to an electromyography (EMG) device. This device detects changes in muscle tension over time by monitoring electrical activity that results in muscle contractions.

Uses

Biofeedback has been used for a range of applications, including:[4]

- ADHD
- Anxiety
- Brain injuries
- Depression
- Digestive disorders such as irritable bowel syndrome
- High and low blood pressure
- Mental health conditions
- Migraines
- Pain
- Physical reactions to stress
- Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

- Relaxation and stress management
- Tension headaches

Biofeedback Work?

Biofeedback teaches people to recognize the physical signs and symptoms of stress and anxiety such as increased heart rate, body temperature, and muscle tension. Scientists believe that it is often the stress response, the body's tendency to go into a state of "fight-or-flight" in order to deal with potential threats, that often exacerbate certain conditions.

During a **typical biofeedback session**:

- Electrical sensors will be connected to specific areas of your body, depending upon the type of response being measured.
- These sensors will be connected to a measurement device that will provide feedback on your physical responses.
- During your session, your therapist will guide you through different mental exercises that may involve visualization, meditation, breathing, or relaxation techniques.
- As you perform these activities, you will receive information on your physical response from the measurement device.

Effectiveness

Biofeedback is often considered a type of training rather than a treatment. With training and practice, biofeedback can be used to help people develop new skills that may help them to better cope or perform.

Biofeedback Devices

Biofeedback devices fall into two different categories. The first are those used by medical and mental health professionals. The second are those available on the consumer market for personal use.

Clinical Biofeedback Devices

Biofeedback devices utilized for clinical purposes are regulated by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration. These devices are often available through a biofeedback therapist's office or the office of another health practitioner.

Personal Use Biofeedback Devices

A number of biofeedback devices can be purchased for personal, in-home use from various online retailers. Such devices often involve wearing sensors that record information and can then be plugged into a computer. Other wearable devices utilize sensors that then provide information via an app on your mobile device.

These devices include wearable instruments ranging from muscle sensors to skin response units to brain wave monitors. Such devices make a variety of claims and target a number of different ailments such as migraines, pelvic floor weakness, snoring, depression, ADHD, autism, and sleep disruptions.

Reasons to Use Biofeedback

Like other approaches to treatment, biofeedback has both its own set of upsides and downsides. It may not be right for everyone, so it is important to consider the benefits and risks before you determine if it the best choice for your situation. So what are some of the reasons why you might consider using biofeedback?

It Can Complement Other Treatments

Biofeedback may appeal in situations where other treatments have not been effective or where people are unable to take certain medications. Because biofeedback is non-invasive, patients may prefer it in situations where other treatments may be more invasive or disrupting.

Biofeedback training can also be used as one part of a treatment approach. People often choose to utilize biofeedback to augment other treatments.

You Want to Better Manage Your Stress

Biofeedback also teaches people how to control their own responses in stressful situations, which can help people feel more in control. This can help people better manage the stress they may face in their daily life, cope with feelings of anxiety, or handle stress that results from another health condition.

There May Be Other Benefits

In addition to helping people better manage stress and other conditions, biofeedback can also have additional mental health benefits. The training process can help people learn new techniques for managing their anxiety and emotional responses.

Music Therapy

Music therapy—a type of expressive arts therapy that uses music to improve and maintain the physical, psychological, and social well-being of individuals—involves a broad range of activities, such as listening to music, singing, and playing a musical instrument.

This type of therapy is facilitated by a trained therapist and is often used in hospitals, rehabilitation centers, schools, correctional facilities, nursing homes, and hospices.

HISTORY OF MUSIC THERAPY

Music has been used as a therapeutic tool for centuries and has been shown to affect many areas of the brain, including the regions involved in emotion, cognition, sensation, and movement. This fact, combined with the engaging nature of music and the diversity of music forms, makes music uniquely effective in the treatment of a wide array of physical and mental problems, including depression, anxiety, and hypertension.

When traveling music groups played for hospitalized veterans during and after both World Wars, doctors and clinicians began to realize the powerful effects that music has on the healing process and requested that professional musicians be hired by the hospitals. This created a need for specialized training in the appropriate delivery of music as a therapeutic method.

Gradually, colleges and universities began to include music therapy as part of their curriculum, beginning with Michigan State University in 1944. In 1950, the first major professional organization for music therapists was formed, and it became known as the National Association for Music Therapy (NAMT). In 1998, the American Music Therapy Association (AMTA) was formed out of a merger between the NAMT and the American Association for Music Therapy. The AMTA focuses on increasing awareness of and access to music therapy services while promoting the advancement of education, training, professional standards, and research in the field of music therapy.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM MUSIC THERAPY?

Music therapy can benefit many individuals. The diverse nature of music means it can be applied in the treatment of concerns both physical and psychological. In some instances, the therapeutic use of music has been able to help people in ways that other forms of therapy have not, as it can sometimes elicit responses that may not appear through more traditional forms of treatment. When people find it difficult to express themselves verbally, they may display a greater degree of interest and engagement in music therapy than they would in a more traditional form of therapy. No background in music is required for a person to benefit from this approach.

Because music can evoke positive emotions and stimulate reward centers in the brain, music therapy is often able to alleviate symptoms of mental health concerns such as:

- Depression
- Mood-related concerns
- Anxiety
- Schizophrenia
- Substance dependency
- Autism
- Personality issues
- Insomnia
- Dementia

Music therapy can both assess and enhance cognitive, social, emotional, and motor functioning, and studies have shown positive results among individuals who have intellectual or physical difficulties, brain injuries, or Alzheimer's. This type of therapy has also been used in the treatment of physical ailments such as cancer and hypertension.

The positive effects of music therapy are not limited to those coping with severe or long-lasting physical and psychological problems, and this therapy can benefit people in a variety of situations. Music is frequently used to reduce stress levels and pain perception among mothers in labor and has been associated with improvements in self-esteem, self-concept, verbal communication, prosocial behavior, socialization skills, group cohesion, and coping skills.

WHAT HAPPENS IN A MUSIC THERAPY SESSION?

The intervention methods employed in music therapy can be roughly divided into active and receptive techniques. When a person is making music, whether by singing, chanting, playing musical instruments, composing, or improvising music, that person is using active techniques. Receptive techniques, on the other hand, involve listening to and responding to music, such as through dance or the analysis of lyrics. Active and receptive techniques are often combined during treatment, and both are used as starting points for the discussion of feelings, values, and goals.

Music therapy can be conducted with individuals or in groups, and the music may be chosen by the therapist or by the person in therapy. A music therapist will generally ensure the type and mode of the chosen form of music, as well as the timing of the music

intervention, are appropriate for meeting the needs and goals of the individual in therapy.

When introducing music, therapists often base their selections on the Iso principle, which states music is more likely to have influence if it matches an individual's current condition. Therapists therefore try to ensure the lyrics and melody of a selected piece of music are well matched with the mood and psychological state of the person in therapy.

Songwriting is commonly used in music therapy and may involve writing original songs or modifying existing ones, with the latter being a more structured approach to writing. A person might modify a song by changing some of the words or lines, adding new verses, or writing entirely new lyrics to match the existing tune. In cases when songs are freely composed, the therapist may provide an emotion or topic to serve as a starting point.

Music therapy can be used in a variety of ways:

- When a person experiences difficulty communicating after a stroke, singing words or short phrases set to a simple melody can often enhance speech production and fluency.
- A person with impaired motor skills might improve fine motor skills by playing simple melodies on a piano or tapping out a rhythm on drum pads. Listening to a rhythmic stimulus, such as a metronome, can also help a person initiate, coordinate, and time their movements.
- A therapist might play a piece of music for children with autism who have limited social skills and ask them to imagine the emotional state of the person who created the music or the

person who is playing it. Doing so can help a person with autism develop or strengthen the ability to consider the emotions others are experiencing.

- Group drumming circles have been used to induce relaxation, provide an outlet for feelings, and foster social connectedness among members of a group. Group members might sit in a circle with a hand drum while the therapist leads them in drumming activities that may involve group members drumming one at a time or all at once. Those who are part of the circle may be asked to express how they feel by playing a rhythm on their drum or the group might be asked to improvise music as a means of increasing group cohesiveness.
- Music might be incorporated into guided imagery or progressive muscle relaxation techniques to enhance the effectiveness of these methods.

TRAINING FOR MUSIC THERAPISTS

Those wishing to become a music therapist must have at least a bachelor's degree in music therapy from an institution approved by the American Music Therapy Association (AMTA). Music therapy programs involve coursework as well as an internship in an educational and/or health care facility. After successfully completing one of the AMTA-approved programs, individuals must take the national examination offered by the Certification Board for Music Therapists (CBMT). If they are successful in the examination, they receive the credential Music Therapist-Board Certified (MT-BC), which is required for professional practice. Board certification is renewed every five years, and in order to maintain this credential,

music therapists must retake the CBMT examination or complete 100 recertification credits within each five-year period.

LIMITATIONS OF MUSIC THERAPY

Music therapy generally produces positive results, but it is not recommended as a stand-alone treatment for serious medical and psychiatric issues. While music may help to alleviate some of the symptoms of these conditions, other forms of treatment such as medication, physical therapy, or psychotherapy may also be necessary.

Breathing Techniques

Take a deep breath in. Now let it out. You may notice a difference in how you feel already. Your breath is a powerful tool to ease stress and make you feel less anxious. Some simple breathing exercises can make a big difference if you make them part of your regular routine.

Before you get started, keep these tips in mind:

- Choose a place to do your breathing exercise. It could be in your bed, on your living room floor, or in a comfortable chair.
- Don't force it. This can make you feel more stressed.
- Try to do it at the same time once or twice a day.
- Wear comfortable clothes.

Many breathing exercises take only a few minutes. When you have more time, you can do them for 10 minutes or more to get even greater benefits.

Most people take short, shallow breaths into their chest. It can make you feel anxious and zap your energy. With this technique, you'll learn how to take bigger breaths, all the way into your belly.

1. Get comfortable. You can lie on your back in bed or on the floor with a pillow under your head and knees. Or you can sit in a chair with your shoulders, head, and neck supported against the back of the chair.
2. Breathe in through your nose. Let your belly fill with air.
3. Breathe out through your nose.
4. Place one hand on your belly. Place the other hand on your chest.
5. As you breathe in, feel your belly rise. As you breathe out, feel your belly lower. The hand on your belly should move more than the one that's on your chest.
6. Take three more full, deep breaths. Breathe fully into your belly as it rises and falls with your breath.

Breath Focus

While you do deep breathing, use a picture in your mind and a word or phrase to help you feel more relaxed.

1. Close your eyes if they're open.
2. Take a few big, deep breaths.
3. Breathe in. As you do that, imagine that the air is filled with a sense of peace and calm. Try to feel it throughout your body.

4. Breathe out. While you're doing it, imagine that the air leaves with your stress and tension.
5. Now use a word or phrase with your breath. As you breathe in, say in your mind, "I breathe in peace and calm."
6. As you breathe out, say in your mind, "I breathe out stress and tension."
7. Continue for 10 to 20 minutes.

Equal Time for Breathing in and Breathing Out

In this exercise, you'll match how long you breathe in with how long you breathe out. Over time, you'll increase how long you're able to breathe in and out at a time.

1. Sit comfortably on the floor or in a chair.
2. Breathe in through your nose. As you do it, count to five.
3. Breathe out through your nose to the count of five.
4. Repeat several times.

Once you feel comfortable with breaths that last five counts, increase how long you breathe in and breathe out. You can work up to breaths that last up to 10 counts.

Progressive Muscle Relaxation

In this technique, you breathe in as you tense a muscle group and breathe out as you release it. Progressive muscle relaxation helps you relax physically and mentally.

1. Lie comfortably on the floor.

2. Take a few deep breaths to relax.
3. Breathe in. Tense the muscles of your feet.
4. Breathe out. Release the tension in your feet.
5. Breathe in. Tense your calf muscles.
6. Breathe out. Release the tension in your calves.
7. Work your way up your body. Tense each muscle group. This includes your legs, belly, chest, fingers, arms, shoulders, neck, and face.

Modified Lion's Breath

As you do this exercise, imagine that you're a lion. Let all of your breath out with a big, open mouth.

1. Sit comfortably on the floor or in a chair.
2. Breathe in through your nose. Fill your belly all the way up with air.
3. When you can't breathe in any more, open your mouth as wide as you can. Breathe out with a "HA" sound.
4. Repeat several times.

Progressive Muscular Relaxation

Have you ever had an aching back or pain in your neck when you were anxious or stressed? When you have anxiety or stress in your life, one of the ways your body responds is with muscle tension.

Progressive muscle relaxation is a method that helps relieve that tension.

- In progressive muscle relaxation, you tense a group of muscles as you breathe in, and you relax them as you breathe out. You work on your muscle groups in a certain order.
- When your body is physically relaxed, you cannot feel anxious. Practicing progressive muscle relaxation for a few weeks will help you get better at this skill, and in time you will be able to use this method to relieve stress.
- When you first start, it may help to use an audio recording until you learn all the muscle groups in order. Check your local library or a bookstore for progressive muscle relaxation audio recordings.
- If you have trouble falling asleep, this method may also help with your sleep problems.

The procedure

You can use an audio recording to help you focus on each muscle group, or you can learn the order of muscle groups and do the exercises from memory. Choose a place where you won't be interrupted and where you can lie down on your back and stretch out comfortably, such as a carpeted floor.

1. Breathe in, and tense the first muscle group (hard but not to the point of pain or cramping) for 4 to 10 seconds.
2. Breathe out, and suddenly and completely relax the muscle group (do not relax it gradually).

3. Relax for 10 to 20 seconds before you work on the next muscle group. Notice the difference between how the muscles feel when they are tense and how they feel when they are relaxed.

4. When you are finished with all of the muscle groups, count backward from 5 to 1 to bring your focus back to the present.

After you have learned how to tense and relax each muscle group, here's something else to try. When you have a very tense muscle, you can practice tensing and relaxing that muscle area without going through the whole routine.

The muscle groups

The following is a list of the muscle groups in order and how to tense them. Remember to lie down when you do this.

Remember to lie down when you do this.

Muscle group	What to do
Hands	Clench them.
Wrists and forearms	Extend them, and bend your hands back at the wrist.

Biceps and upper arms	Clench your hands into fists, bend your arms at the elbows, and flex your biceps.
Shoulders	Shrug them (raise toward your ears).
Forehead	Wrinkle it into a deep frown.
Around the eyes and bridge of the nose	Close your eyes as tightly as you can. (Remove contact lenses before you start the exercise.)
Cheeks and jaws	Smile as widely as you can.
Around the mouth	Press your lips together tightly. (Check your face for tension. You just want to use your lips.)
Back of the neck	Press the back of your head against the

	floor or chair.
Front of the neck	Touch your chin to your chest. (Try not to create tension in your neck and head.)
Chest	Take a deep breath, and hold it for 4 to 10 seconds.
Back	Arch your back up and away from the floor or chair.
Stomach	Suck it into a tight knot. (Check your chest and stomach for tension.)
Hips and buttocks	Press your buttocks together tightly.
Thighs	Clench them hard.

Lower legs	Point your toes toward your face. Then point your toes away, and curl them downward at the same time. (Check the area from your waist down for tension.)

Guided Imagery For Relaxation

You may have heard of guided imagery as a stress management technique, but do you know how it works, why it's useful, and how it measures up against other stress relievers? Guided imagery is widely used for Guided imagery is an effective stress management technique and has remained popular for several reasons. It can quickly calm your body and simultaneously relax your mind. It's pleasant to practice, and not overly difficult or intimidating to learn.

And it can help you to de-stress in minutes, but can also be a useful strategy for maintaining resilience toward stress during difficult times. If this sounds like something you can use in your life, read more about when guided imagery is used, and how it may be a useful go-to stress reliever for you.

Guided Imagery is a convenient and simple relaxation technique that can help you quickly and easily manage stress and reduce tension in your body. It’s virtually as easy as indulging in a vivid daydream and, with practice, this technique can help you to better access your inner wisdom.

There are a few different ways to practice using guided imagery, including taking a class where you are "guided" by an instructor, using audio recordings, creating your own recordings, or using your inner voice and imagination. Here we'll examine the benefits and drawbacks of this simple and engaging stress management technique and explore how it compares to other methods so you can determine how guided imagery may fit into your life. Then we'll delve into the practice of guided imagery and the different ways of using it. We'll look at methods of using your own thoughts, simply because this takes the least amount of preparation and expense; however, you can also explore guided imagery at many yoga studios, with recordings, and through an experienced therapist. You can also record your own guided imagery tapes. First, let's take a closer look at the practice itself.

Guided Imagery's Effects on the Body

Guided imagery has been found to provide significant stress reduction benefits, including physically relaxing the body quickly and efficiently and even helping participants get in touch with deeper levels of wisdom (held on a subconscious level) that would help them better manage their lives in ways that would reduce stress. The studies demonstrating the health benefits of imagery are so numerous that many hospitals are incorporating imagery as an option to help with treatment. Fortunately, it's a simple enough technique that it can be used at home as well, with positive results.

What's Involved?

With the help of a guided imagery recording, a professional helper, or just one's own imagination, those who practice guided imagery get into a deeply relaxed state and envision, with great detail

relating to all of the senses, a relaxing scene. This scene may be something in the natural world like a beautiful waterfall in Hawaii with sparkling and refreshing water at the bottom or a cool and dense forest where you may take a calming walk in your imagination. It could also be a relaxing or happy event such as a vividly-imagined scene where you discover a $50 bill on the sidewalk and eat a delicious meal in a restaurant by the beach, or win the lottery and buy whatever you want.

Those who use guided imagery for stress relief may also imagine a wise ‘guide’ with them, answering their questions and asking them questions that they must ponder in order to get to a better place in their lives. (This ‘guide’ is a representation of their subconscious mind that they aren’t generally able to access.)

Practicing Guided Imagery:

Now that you understand the basics of this stress management tool, let's get into how you can practice it. The following are general guidelines to help you understand the process of guided imagery, and be able to practice it on your own. Here's how to make guided imagery practice work for you.

Get Comfortable

Get into a relaxed position, like the one you would use for meditation or self-hypnosis. If a lying-down position would likely put you to sleep, opt for a cross-legged position or recline in a comfortable chair. Try to position yourself in a way where your physical comfort won't be a distraction.

Breathe From Your Belly

Use diaphragmic deep breathing and close your eyes, focusing on "breathing in peace and breathing out stress." This means letting your belly expand and contract with your breath--if you find your shoulders rising and falling, you are likely carrying tension in your body and not breathing in the most relaxed way.

Choose a Scene and Vividly Imagine It

Once you get to a relaxed state, begin to envision yourself in the midst of the most relaxing environment you can imagine. For some, this would be floating in the cool, clear waters off of a remote tropical island, where attractive people bring drinks and smooth music plays in the background. For others, this might be sitting by a fire in a secluded snow cabin, deep in the woods, sipping hot cocoa and reading the latest bestseller while wrapped in a plush blanket and fuzzy slippers.

You may want to remember a time and place when you felt wonderful and relaxed (a "happy place" in your memory), a vividly-described scene from a book you love, or the way you imagine a place you've always wanted to visit.

Relax

Stay here for as long as you like. Enjoy your ‘surroundings’, and let yourself be far from what stresses you. When you’re ready to come back to reality, count back from ten or twenty, and tell yourself that when you get to ‘one’, you’ll feel serene and alert, and enjoy the rest of your day. When you return, you’ll feel calmer and refreshed, like returning from a mini-vacation, but you won’t have left the room!

Tips

1. You may want to use ambient sounds that compliment your imagery. This way, you feel more immersed in your 'environment', plus the sounds of real-life will be obscured.
2. You may also want to set an alarm, just in case you lose track of time or fall asleep. This way, you'll be more able to relax and let go, knowing that your schedule won't be in jeopardy.
3. As you get more practiced, you'll be able to go more deeply and quickly. You may also want to communicate with your subconscious mind, with the help of a tape you record for yourself or purchase, or a therapist.

Mindfulness

You may have heard that mindfulness — the ability to be fully present in the moment — can have numerous benefits, everything from decreased stress and sadness to increased levels focus and happiness, according to general mindfulness research. But what exactly is mindfulness? And, how can you recognize it and reap its many benefits? Mindfulness meditation practice is one way to truly experience the current moment and integrate that awareness into your everyday life. Here's everything you need to know to get started.

First, it's helpful to become familiar with the meaning of mindfulness, as well as how it relates to meditation. Mindfulness is the quality of being present and fully engaged with whatever we're doing at the moment — free from distraction or judgment, and aware of our thoughts and feelings without getting caught up in them. We train in this moment-to-moment awareness through meditation, allowing us to build the skill of mindfulness so that we can then apply it to everyday life. In teaching the mind to be

present, we are teaching ourselves to be live more mindfully — in the present, taking a breath, not beholden to reactive thoughts and feelings — which is particularly helpful when faced with challenging circumstances or difficult situations.

Wondering how many times a day you're in a mindful state? There's actually a 15-item questionnaire researchers use to measure mindfulness called the Mindful Attention Awareness Score (MAAS), that you can take to see where you stand — the higher the score, the greater your ability to be mindful. Scored lower than you'd like? Don't sweat it! It's simply a sign that you may benefit from some mindfulness meditation practice.

The difference between mindfulness and meditation

Here's the thing that many people find confusing about mindfulness: it's not a temporary state of mind that is present during meditation and then vanishes for the rest of the day. Rather, mindfulness is a way of living in which — when we remember — we are able to step back and be in the present moment in any situation.

Mindfulness doesn't eliminate stress or other difficulties; instead, by becoming aware of unpleasant thoughts and emotions that arise because of challenging situations, we have more choice in how to handle them in the moment — and a better chance of reacting calmly and empathetically when faced with stress or challenges. Of course, practicing mindfulness does not mean we never get angry — rather it allows us to be more thoughtful in how we want to respond, whether that's calmly and empathetically or perhaps, occasionally with measured anger.

Meditation is the training ground for learning mindfulness. At first, we meditate to become familiar with the here and now for a limited

period of time. Over time, however, regularly practicing mindfulness helps us develop the ability to be present throughout the day, every day.

How mindfulness meditation works

Mindfulness meditation doesn't only change our mindset and perspective, it actually can change the shape of our brains. Generalized neuroimaging meditation studies found that 8 weeks of mindfulness meditation also changes our brains, rewiring them towards more positive thoughts and emotions.

For starters, meditation allows us to move from high-frequency brain waves to a lower frequency, which activates (and, potentially even more importantly, deactivates) certain areas of the brain. For example, it can decrease neurological connections to the medial prefrontal cortex, or the "me center," diminishing traits such as fear, stress, and anxiety. In turn, meditation can also build new pathways to the parts of the brain responsible for traits like focus and decision-making.

And that's not all: mindfulness meditation can actually change the shape of the brain as well, a process known as neuroplasticity. Research shows that gray matter — the area of the brain responsible for emotional regulation, planning, and problem-solving — as well as the cortical thickness — responsible for learning and memory — both increase with regular meditation practice. Alternatively, the amygdala, which regulates how we feel stress, fear, and anxiety, decreases in size.

The benefits of mindfulness

The hype around mindfulness meditation is real. People who incorporate it into their lives often report heightened levels of happiness, patience, acceptance, and compassion, as well as lower levels of stress, frustration, and sadness. There's plenty of research, too: Separate studies conducted by Northeastern University found that 3 weeks of Headspace increased compassion by 23% and reduced aggression by 57%. What's more, another study with students found that 10 days of Headspace increased positivity and well-being. And yet another — an internal study that was published in top mindfulness journal PLOS ONE — found that 10 days of Headspace reduced stress by 14%.

Practicing mindfulness meditation

Practicing mindfulness meditation can be a great way to manage stress and boost compassion, focus, empathy, patience, energy, and ultimately, happiness. If you're just beginning a practice, a guided mindfulness meditation — led by a teacher in person or via the Headspace app — might be a good place to start. Having a trusted, experienced teacher guide you through the basic steps can be key to getting the most out of the experience.

Most guided mindfulness meditations follow a similar format: the teacher explains how the mind behaves during meditation, leads you through a particular meditation technique, and suggests how to integrate this technique into your everyday life.

Though there are countless mindfulness techniques — each rooted in a different tradition and with a unique focus — most have one thing in common: they're aimed at cultivating two essential components, **calm** and **clarity**, with the intention to remain focused and hone a natural quality of awareness.

8 meditation techniques that cultivate mindfulness

Here's a breakdown of eight of the more popular mindfulness techniques — all of which are used in the Headspace app. Some will sound intriguing, while others may not be your cup of tea. See which ones work best for you.

1. Focused Attention: Likely the most common form of meditation, this technique uses the breath to anchor the mind and maintain awareness. Focus your attention on the breath — specifically the rise and fall of the chest — and return to the breath whenever you get distracted or notice your mind starting to wander.

2. Body Scan: This technique, which uses meditation to connect with the body, involves scanning your body from head to toe and being aware of any discomfort, sensations, or aches that exist (which could be indicators of stress and anxiety).

3. Noting: This is a mindfulness technique in which you "note" a particular thought or feeling when you become distracted during meditation. The practice of noting helps to create space and learn more about our habits, tendencies, and conditioning.

4. Loving Kindness: Instead of focusing on the breath, this technique involves focusing on the image of different people: people we know, people we don't; people we like, people we don't. We direct well-wishes and goodwill first to ourselves, and then, as a ripple effect, to others, which helps us let go of unhappy feelings we may be experiencing.

5. Skillful Compassion: Similar to the loving kindness meditation technique, this one involves focusing on a person you know or love and paying attention to the sensations arising from the heart. It's

aptly named because it's thought to be helpful in opening our hearts and minds for the benefit of other people, which in turn fosters a feeling of happiness in our own mind.

6. Visualization: This technique uses visualization, to focus on a person or something more abstract, to hold attention. The idea here is that the familiar image will help create and maintain a relaxed focus.

7. Resting Awareness: Rather than focusing on the breath or a visualization, this technique involves letting the mind rest; thoughts may enter, but instead of distracting you and pulling you away from the present moment, they simply leave.

8. Reflection: For this technique, ask yourself a question, for example, "What are you most grateful for?" (Note that asking yourself a question using the second person — you — will discourage the intellectual mind from trying to answer it rationally.) Be aware of the feelings, not the thoughts, that arise when you focus on the question.

Practicing mindfulness post-meditation

Whichever technique you choose, know that experiencing moments of mindfulness during meditation is a great first step. After meditation, while our minds will likely experience distractions throughout the day, the more our mindfulness practice is honed and developed, the more we are able to catch ourselves being distracted and the more we are able to bring our focus back to the present moment. After all, that's the whole point of practicing mindfulness meditation — to make us more mindful and less distracted throughout the day.

So how do you remember to be mindful when you're not meditating? At the end of your meditation, try to recognize how your mind feels and then make an intention to carry that feeling into the rest of your day. Some people find it helpful to form a clear idea of what they are going to do next — maybe take a shower or get a cup of coffee — and perform their next task with the same level of awareness they experienced during meditation. It doesn't matter what you do after meditation, as long as you look for opportunities throughout your day in which to recognize the space and mindfulness you experienced during your practice.

Mindfulness for beginners

If you're looking for a beginner's guide to mindfulness, Headspace offers a 10-day beginner's course on the essentials of meditation that will help you develop mindfulness — available for free — which is an ideal way to start building the foundation for a life-changing daily meditation practice. From there, once you gain more experience and confidence, you can explore the whole library of content, featuring hundreds of guided mindfulness meditations on a wide array of topics from stress and compassion, to sleep and focus.

Yogasana

Tada means palm tree or mountain. This asana teaches one to attain stability and firmness and forms the base for all the standing asana.

Technique



- Stand with feet 2 inches apart.
- Interlock the fingers, and turn the wrist outwards. Now inhale, raise the arms up and bring them in line with the shoulders.
- Raise the heels off the floor and balance on the toes. Stay in this position for 10 -15 seconds.
- Exhale, bring the heels down.

- Release the interlock of the fingers and bring the arms down parallel to the trunk, and come back to standing posture.

Benefits

- This asana brings stability in the body, helps to clear up congestion of the spinal nerves, corrects faulty posture.
- Helps to increase height up to a certain age.

A word of caution

- Avoid lifting the toes in case of acute cardiac problems varicose veins and vertigo.

Vrksasana (The Tree Posture)

Vṛksa means tree.The final position of this asana resembles the shape of a tree, hence the name.

Technique



- Stand with feet 2 inches apart
- Focus on a point in front.
- Exhale, bend the right leg and place the foot on the inside of the left thigh. The heel should be touching the perineum.
- Inhale and extend the arms up and join the palms.
- Stay in the position for 10 to 30 seconds and breathe normally.

- Exhale and bring the arms and right foot down.
- Relax and repeat the asana by bending the left leg.

Benefits

- Improves neuro-muscular coordination, balance,endurance and alertness.
- It tones up the leg muscles and rejuvenates the ligaments also.

A word of caution

- Please avoid this practice in case of arthritis, vertigo and obesity.

Pada-Hastasana (The Hands to Feet Posture)

Pada means feet, hasta means hands. Therefore,Pada Hastasana means taking the palms down towards the feet. This is also referred as Uttanasana.

Technique

- 



Stand with feet 2 inches apart

- Inhale slowly and raise the arms up.
- Stretch up the body from the waist.
- Exhale and bend forward until the trunk is parallel to the ground.

- Exhale, and bend forward until the entire palm rests on the ground.
- Maintain this final posture for 10-30 seconds.
- Those who are having stiff back should bend according to their capacity.
- Now inhale, come up slowly to the vertical position and stretch the arms above the head.
- Exhale and slowly return to the starting position in reverse order.
- Relax in Tadasana.

Benefits

- Makes the spine flexible, improves digestions, and prevents constipation and menstrual problems.

A word of caution

- Please avoid this practice in case of cardiac or back problems, abdominal inflammation, hernia and ulcers,high myopia, vertigo and during pregnancy.
- Those with vertebral and disc disorders should also avoid this practice.

Arda Çakrasana (The Half Wheel Posture)

Ardha means half. Çakra means wheel. In this posture, as the body takes the shape of a half wheel, hence it is called Ardha Çakrasasna.

Technique



- Support the back at the waist with all the fingers together pointing forward or downward.
- Drop the head backwards and stretching the neck muscles. As you inhale, bend backwards from the lumbar region; exhale and relax.
- Stay here for 10-30 seconds with normal breathing.
- Inhale and slowly come up.

Benefits

- Ardha Ṣakrasana makes the spine flexible and strengthens the spinal nerves.
- Strengthens the neck muscles, and improves breathing capacity.
- Helps in cervical spondylitis.

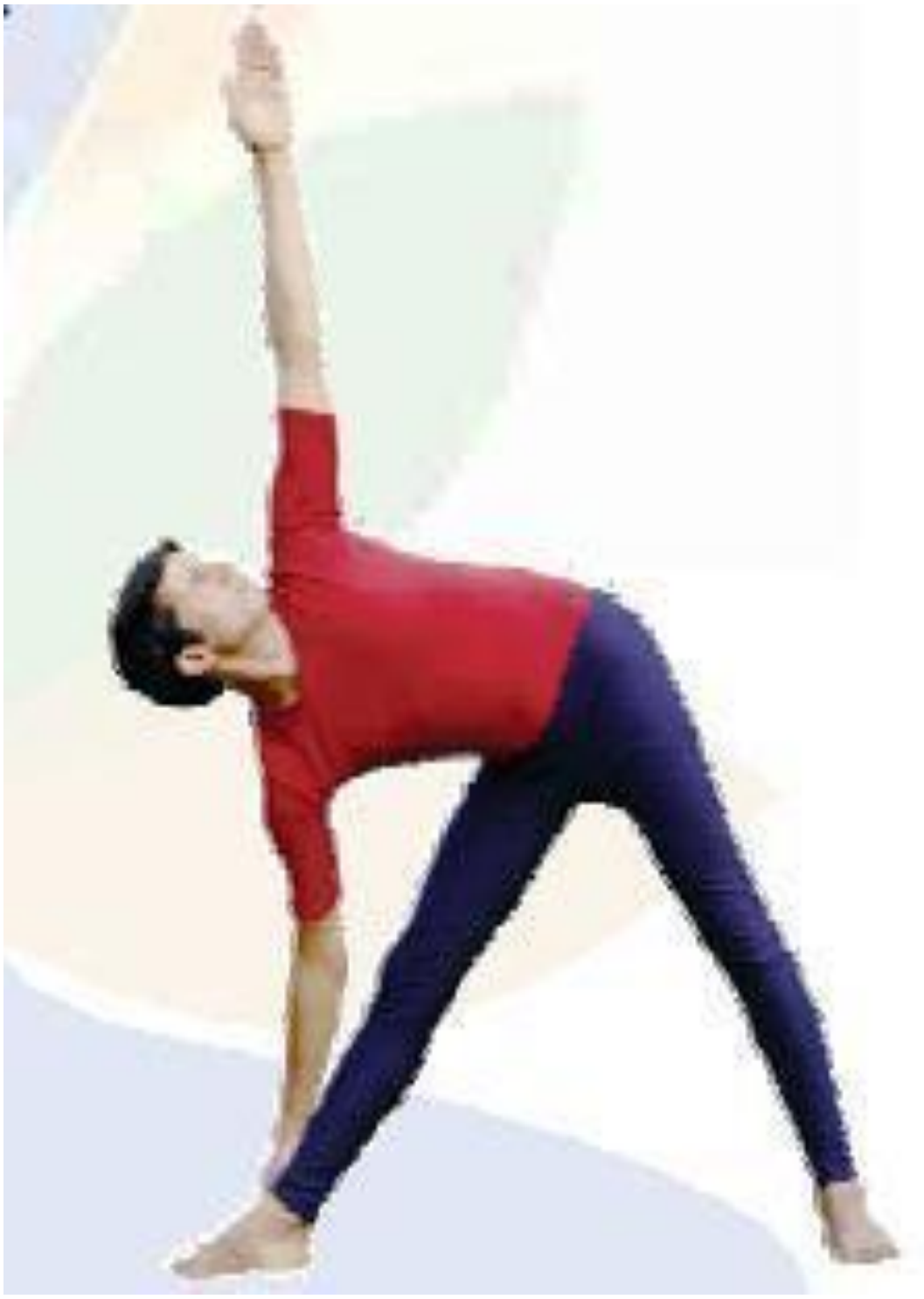
A word of caution

- Avoid this posture in case of vertigo or a tendency to giddiness.
- Hypertensive patients shall bend with care.

Trikonasana (The Triangle Posture)

Trikoṇa means triangle. Tri means three and kona is an angle.As the asana resembles three arms triangles made by the trunk and the limbs, it has been named Trikoṇasana.

Technique



- Stand with your feet comfortably apart.
- Slowly raise both the arms sideways till they are horizontal.

- Exhale, slowly bend to the right side and place the right hand just behind the right foot.
- The left arm is straight up, in line with the right arm.
- Turn the left palm forward.
- Turn your head and gaze at the tip of the left middle finger.
- Remain in the posture for 10-30 seconds with normal breathing.
- As you inhale slowly come up.
- Repeat for the left side.

Benefits

- Prevents flat foot.
- Strengthens calf, thigh and waist muscles
- Makes the spine flexible, improves lungs capacity.

A word of caution

- Avoid this posture in case of slipped disc, sciatica, and after undergoing abdominal surgery.
- Do not do beyond limits and overdo the lateral stretch.
- If one cannot touch the feet, one can reach for the knees instead.

Sitting Postures

Bhadrasana (The Firm/ Auspicious Posture)

Sthiti: Long sitting posture **(Viṣramasana)**



Technique



- Sit erect with the legs stretched out straight in the front.
- Keep the hands beside the hips. This is **Dandasana.**
- Now put the soles of your feet together.
- Exhale and clasp your hands together over your toes. Pull your heels as close as possible up to perineum region.
- If your thighs are not touching or are not close to the floor, place a soft cushion underneath the knees for support. This is the final position.
- Stay here for some time

Benefits

- Keeps the body firm and stabilize the mind.
- Keeps the knees and hip joints healthy.
- Helps to relieve knee pain.

- Acts on the abdominal organs and releases any tension in the abdomen.
- Benefits women by relieving abdominal pain often experienced during menstruation.

A word of caution

- Avoid this practice in case of severe arthritis and sciatica.

Vajrāsana (Thunderbolt Posture)

This can be considered as a meditative posture. While practicing it for meditative purposes, one should close his/her eyes at the final stage.

Technique

- Sit with extended legs together, hands by the side of the body, palm resting on the ground, fingers pointing forward.

- Fold the right leg at the knee and place the foot under the right buttock.



- Similarly folding the left leg, place left foot under the left buttock
- Place both the heels so that the big toes overlap each other.
- Position of the buttocks in the space between the heels

- Keep hands on respective knees.
- Keep the spine erect, gaze in front or close the eyes.
- While returning to the original position, bend a little towards right side, take out your left leg and extend it.
- Similarly extend your right leg and return to the original position.

Benefits

- This āsana strengthens thigh muscles and calf muscles.
- This āsana is good for digestion.
- It provides firm base to the spine and keeps the spine erect.

A word of caution

- Persons suffering from piles should not practise this āsana.
- Those who are suffering from knee pain and ankle injury should avoid this practice.

Ardha Ustrasana (The Half Camel Posture)

Sthiti: Long sitting posture (Viṣramasana)

Uṣṭra means camel. The final version of this āsana resembles the hump of a camel. In this version, only the first stage (half) of the āsana is being practiced.

Technique



- Sit in Viṣramasana.
- Come to Dandasana.
- Fold your legs and sit on your heels.
- Keep the thighs close and big toes touching.
- Place the hands on the knees.
- The head and back should be straight.
- This is Vajrasana
- Stand on your knees.
- Place the hands on the waist with fingers pointing downward.
- Keep the elbows and shoulders parallel.

- Bend the head back and stretch the neck muscles; inhale and bend the trunk backwards as much as possible. As you exhale, relax.
- Keep the thighs perpendicular to the ground
- Remain in the posture for 10-30 seconds with normal breathing.
- Return with inhalation; sit in Vajrasana.
- Relax in Viṣrāmāsana.

Note: If you can reach the heels, you can place your hands on them and bend backwards. This is called Uṣtrasana.

Benefits

- Relieves constipation and back pain.
- Increases blood circulation to the head and cardiac region.

A word of caution

- In case of hernia and abdominal injuries, arthritis, vertigo and pregnancy, please avoid doing this asana.

Ustrasana (Camel Posture)

Ustra means camel. The body in this posture resembles the posture of a camel, hence the name.

Technique



- Kneel down on the floor. Keep your thighs and feet together, toes pointing back and resting on the floor.
- Bring the knees and the feet about one foot apart and stand on the knees.
- While inhaling bend backward.
- Be careful not to jerk the neck while bending backward.
- With exhalation place the right palm on right heel and left palm on left heel.
- In final position, thighs will be vertical to the floor and head tilted backwards.

- Weight of the body should be evenly supported by the arms and legs.
- This āsana should be practiced after Sarvagasana as a counter pose to enhance the benefits of Sarvangasana.

Benefits

- Ustrāsana is extremely useful for defective eyesight.
- This is useful in relieving back pain and neck pain.
- It helps to reduce fat over the abdomen and hips.
- It is helpful in digestive problems.

A word of caution

- Those suffering from high blood pressure, heart disease, hernia should not practice it.

Sasankasana (The Hare Posture)

Sthiti: Vajrasana

Technique



- Sit in Vajrasana.
- Spread both the knees wide apart, keep the big toes touching.
- Keep the palms between the knees.
- Exhale and slowly stretch them full length.
- Bend forward and place the chin on the ground.
- Keep the arms parallel.
- Look in front and maintain the posture.
- Inhale and come up.
- Exhale and come back to Vajrasan.
- Stretch your legs back to Visramasan

Benefits

- It helps to reduce stress, anger etc
- It tones up reproductive organs, relieves constipation, improves digestion and relieves back pain.

A word of caution

- Please avoid this posture in case of acute backache.
- Patients with osteoarthritis of the knees should exercise with caution or avoid Vajrasana.

Uttāna Mandūkāsana (Stretched up-frog posture)

Uttāna mean upright and Mandūka means frog. The final position of Uttāna Mandukasana resembles an upright frog, hence the name. In Uttāna Mandūkāsana, the head is hold by the elbows.

Technique

-  Sit in Vajrāsana

- Spread both the knees wide, apart while toes remaining together.
- Raise your right arm, fold it and take it backward from above the right shoulder and place the palm below the left shoulder.
- Now fold left arm similarly and place the palm from the above level at below right shoulder.
- Maintain the position for a while, then coming back slowly to remove the left arm and then the right arm; bring the knees together as in the initial position.

Benefits

- This asana is helpful in backache and cervical pain.
- It helps in improving the diaphragmatic movements and helps to improve lungs capacity.

A word of caution

- Person with severe knee joint pain should not perform it.

Vakrasana (The Spinal Twist Posture)

Sthiti: Dandasana

Technique



- Bend the right leg, and place the right foot beside the left knee.
- As you exhale, twist the body to the right.
- Bring the left arm around the right knee and clasp the right big toe or place the palm beside right foot.
- Take the right arm back and keep the palm on the ground with the back straight.
- Remain in the posture for 10-30 seconds with normal breathing and relax.
- Take out your hands with exhalation and relax
- Repeat the same on the other side.
- Inhale and come up.

Benefits

- Increases flexibility of the spine.
- Helps to overcome constipation, dyspepsia.

- Stimulates pancreas and helps in the management of diabetes.

A word of caution

- Please avoid this posture in case of severe back pain, vertebral and disc disorders, after abdominal surgery and during menstruation.

Prone Postures

Bhujangasana (The Cobra Posture)

Sthiti: Prone posture or Makarasana

Technique





- Lie down on your stomach, rest you head on your hands and relax the body.
- Now join your legs and stretch your arms
- Keep the forehead on the ground.
- Now place your hands just beside the body; keep palms and elbows on the ground.
- As you inhale slowly, lift the chin and chest come up to navel region.
- Stay there comfortably.

- This is called **Sarala Bhujangasana.**
- Now come back and place your forehead on the ground.
- Keep your palms besides the chest where your elbows were and raise the elbows.
- Inhale; slowly lift the chin and chest up to navel region.
- Exhale, rest your forehead on the ground and place your palms and rest your head on the palms and spread your legs and relax.

Note: Keep the legs firm so that no load or strain is felt on the lumbar spine.

Benefits

- This āsana is best for stress management.
- It reduces abdominal fat and alleviates constipation.
- It also helps to remove backache and bronchial problems.

A word of caution

- Those who have undergone abdominal surgery should avoid this asana for 2-3 months.
- Those who suffer from hernia, ulcers should not practice this asana.

Salabhasana(The Locust Posture)

Sthiti: Prone posture; Makarasana

Technique



- Lie down on your stomach in Makarasana.
- Rest the chin on the floor; keep both hands beside the body;palms facing upwards
- Inhale, raise the legs off the floor as much as you can without bending the knees.
- Extend the arms and legs well to ease the lift of the body off the floor.
- Stay in this position for 10-20 seconds breathing normally.
- Exhale, bring the legs down towards the floor.
- Rest for a few seconds in Makarasana.

Note: Pull up the knee caps and squeeze the buttocks to improve the posture. This āsana is more beneficial when performed after Bhujangasana

Benefits

- Helps in sciatica and lower backache.
- Tones the hip muscles and those in the kidney region.
- Reduces fat on the thighs and buttocks; good in weight management.
- Helps the abdominal organs aiding digestion

A word of caution

- Cardiac patients should avoid this posture. Please proceed cautiously in case of sever lower back pain.
- People with high blood pressure, peptic ulcers and hernia should also avoid this posture.

Makarasana (The Crocodile Posture)

In Sanskrit, Makara means crocodile. In this āsana, the body resembles a crocodile.

Sthiti: Prone relaxation posture

Technique



- Lie down on your stomach with the feet wide apart, feet pointing outward.
- Bend both the arms and place the right hand on the left hand.
- Place the forehead on your hands.
- Keep the eyes closed. This is **Makarasana.**
- This asana is practiced for relaxation in all prone postures.

Benefits

- Promotes relaxation of the lower back.

- Helps in recovery of back problems.
- Indicated for all orthopedic ailments.
- Indicated to counter stress and anxiety.

A word of caution

- Avoid this practice in case of low blood pressure, severe cardiac problems and pregnancy.

Supine Postures

Setubandhasana (The Bridge Posture)

Setubandha means formation of bridge. In this posture, the body is positioned like a bridge, hence the name. This is also called as Çatuṣpadasana.

Sthiti: Supine lying; Savasana.

Technique



- Bend both the legs at the knees and bring the heels near the buttocks.
- Hold both the ankles firmly; keep the knees and feet in one straight line.
- Inhale; slowly raise your buttocks and trunk up as much as you can to form bridge.
- Remain in this position for 10-30 seconds, with normal breathing.
- Exhale, slowly return to the original position and relax in Savasana.

Note: In the final position, the shoulders and head remain in contact with the floor and If required, in the final position, you can support your body at the waist with your hands.

Benefits

- Relieves depression and anxiety. Strengthens lower back muscles.
- Stretches abdominal organs, improves digestion and helps to relieve constipation.

A word of caution

- People suffering from ulcers and hernia, and women in advanced stages of pregnancy should not practice this asana.

Uttāna Pādāsana (Raised feet posture)

Uttāna in this context mean raised-upward and Pāda means leg. In this āsana, the legs are raised upward in supine position, hence, the name.

Technique

-  Lie comfortably on the ground with legs stretched out. Hands should be placed by the sides.
- While inhaling, slowly raise both the legs without bending them at the knees and bring them to 30^0angle.
- Maintain the position with normal breathing.
- Exhale and slowly bring both the legs down and place them on the ground.
- Repeat it one more time.

Benefits

- It balances the navel centre (Nabhimanipuracakra)
- It is helpful in relieving abdominal pain, flatulence, indigestion and diarrhea.
- It builds up the abdominal muscles.

- It is also effective in overcoming the nervousness and anxiety.
- Helps to improve breathing and lungs capacity

A word of caution

- People with hypertension shall practice it with one leg alternatively without holding the breath.

Ardha Halāsana (Half plough posture)

'Ardha' means half and 'Hala' means plough. This posture is known as Ardha Halāsana because in its final position, the body resembles half the shape of an Indian plough.

Technique

- 
  Take supine position; keep hands by the sides of thighs, palms resting on the ground.

- Slowly raise your legs together without bending at knees and stop at 30^0 angle.
- After few seconds raise your legs further up to 60^0 angle and maintain the position.
- Now slowly raise the legs at 90^0angle. This is the final position of the Ardha Halāsana.
- The body from hip to shoulder should be kept straight.
- Maintain this position as long as comfortable.
- Slowly legs at 90^0 angle and then on the ground without lifting the head.

Benefits

- This āsana is beneficial for dyspepsia and constipation
- The practice of this asana is useful in cases of diabetes, piles and throat related disorders.
- This is very beneficial for Hypertensive patients but needs to practice with care.

A word of caution

- Those who have lumbosacral (lower back) pain should not perform with both legs together.
- Avoid this practice in case of abdominal injuries, hernia etc.

Pavanmuktasana (The Wind Releasing Posture)

Pavan means wind and mukta means to release or to make free. As the name suggests, this asana is useful in removing wind or flatulence from the stomach and intestines.

Sthiti: Savasana

Technique



- Lie down flat on the back.
- Bend both the knees and bring the thighs to the chest.
- Interlock the fingers and clasp the shin below knees.
- Exhale; rise the head till your chin touches the knees and relax.
- This is Pavanamuktasana.
- Bring the head back to the ground.
- While exhaling, lower the legs to the floor.

- Rest in Savasana

Note: Synchronise your breathing with the leg movement and While touching the knee with the nose/ forehead, you should be able to feel the lumbar region stretch; keep the eyes closed and focus your attention on the lumbar region.

Benefits

- Removes constipation; gives relief from flatulence, decreases the bloating sensation in the abdomen and aids digestion.
- Helps in recovery of back problems.
- Offers deep internal pressure, massage and stretching of the highly complicated network of muscles, ligaments and tendons in the pelvis and waist region.
- It tones up the back muscles and spinal nerves.

A word of caution

- Please avoid this practice in case of abdominal injuries, hernia, sciatica or severe back pain and during pregnancy.

Savasana (The Dead Body Posture)

Sava means dead body. The final position in this āsana resembles a dead body.

Sthiti: Supine Relaxation Posture

Technique

- Lie down on your back with arms and legs comfortably apart.
- Palms facing upward; eyes closed.

- Relax the whole body consciously



- Become aware of natural breath and allow it to become rhythmic and slow.
- Remain in the position till you feel refresh and relax.

Benefits

- Helps to relieve all kinds of tensions and gives rest to both body and mind.
- Relaxes the whole psycho-physiological system.
- The mind, which is constantly attracted to the outer world, takes a U-turn and moves inwards, thus gradually getting absorbed; as the mind turns quiet and absorbed, the practitioner remains undisturbed by the external environment.

- It is found very beneficial in the management of stress and its consequences.

Stress Inoculation Training

Stress Inoculation Training (SIT) is a multifaceted type of cognitive-behavioral therapy designed to help individuals cope with stress. It was initially developed by psychologist Donald Meichenbaum in the 1980s and has been employed to mitigate the sequelae of stress in a variety of situations. The essence of SIT is that by exposing people to increasing levels of perceived stress, they practice employing different coping skills and eventually develop increased tolerance or immunity to a particular stimulus.

1. **Conceptualization** – This phase is designed to achieve two specific goals. First, it builds a relationship between the therapist, coach, or trainer. Second, it educates an individual, increasing their understanding and awareness of his or her stress response and existing coping skils. According to Meichenbaum, is it peferential for this phase to be less didactic and more Socratic in nature. He suggests using “curious questions” to promote an individuals processing and discovery.
2. **Skills Acquisition and Consolidation** – This phase is all about developing and practicing individual psychological tools and cognitive restructuring techniques (breathing techniques, relaxation techniques, negative thought stopping, etc.). The goal is build the coping techniques to they can be applied in the next phase to regulate negative emotions and increase control over physiological responses. They are discovered,

nurtured, and strengthened in collaborative manner with a trainer or therapist.

3. **Application and Follow-through** – This phase is, in essence, the phase of inoculation. On a graduated basis, an individual is exposed to increasing levels of a particular stressor and practices applying the skills they have developed to mitigate his or her stress response.

Modifications of Stress Inoculation Training: Stress Exposure Training

It is important to recognize that Meichenbaum's intention was really to help individuals cope with physical pain, anxiety, anger, and fear as a result of traumatic experiences. This was a clinical intervention designed to treat pathological psychiatric conditions. However, various organizations and individuals saw the potential benefit of instituting this technique prophylactically. Organizations, like the military and NASA, began to adapt the traditional structure of SIT in demonstrated substantial improvements in performance.[7,8,9,10,11,12]

One adaptation of SIT is Stress Exposure Training (SET). SET, originally proposed by Driskell and Johnston, takes a slightly different approach.[11] Its general structure is similar to Meichenbaum's cognitive behavioral approach. It is dived into three analogous phases:

1. **Information provision** – This phase provides information on the human stress response, conditions participants should expect to encounter, and other preparatory information

2. **Skills acquisition** – This is phase is designed to develop and refine behavioral, technical, and cognitive skills
3. **Application and practice** – This phase includes practicing skills under conditions that approximate the operational environment and that gradually attain the level of stress expected

SET is different in that, quite simply, it takes a proactive approach. It provides prophylaxis. It prepares individuals without psychiatric pathology for potential stressors and situations that are likely to encounter.

Information Provision

Before we even approached the edge of the water, our instructors told us what to expect. They said it was normal to be anxious; it was normal to be uncomfortable with your hands and legs tied together. Furthermore, it was a normal physiologic response to experience an elevated heart rate, physical discomfort, and a general unease having to hold our breath. They also explained why it would be important to relax and reduce our bodies' oxygen consumption as much as possible.

In the first phase, preparatory information is provided to trainees. They are taught about the physiological response to stress normally and how these natural physiological mechanisms can interfere with the specific cognitive processes and technical skills during resuscitation. It ensures that everyone understands this deterioration in their faculties is normal. Furthermore, it generates accurate predictions of how they will respond. As it turns out, this is critical. Just by having more precise expectations, people perform better under stress.[14]

Another important part of this phase is making it clear that providers aren't helpless in the face of this hard-wired response. The belief that people have the capacity to exert control over their behavior is critical. This understanding of self-efficacy has been linked to improved performance in different domains.[15,16] It also allows you to predict potential areas of weakness and motivate individuals to obtain the necessary skills to improve their response under stress.[17,18]

Phase 2 – Skills acquisition

We practiced drown-proofing every day for months. Everybody developed tricks and methods to help keep calm, manage their anxiety, and prepare to address various challenges that arose during the exercise. Some people developed a mantra they would repeat to themselves to build confidence. Others sung songs in their heads to calm them down. Still others practiced muscle relaxation techniques whenever possible under water.

The crux of Phase 2 is to develop the host of technical and non-technical skills needed to perform in the resuscitation environment without the addition of stressful stimuli. The goal is to learn and develop constructive coping mechanisms and to develop effective performance habits. The fundamental technical skills of emergency medical care must be established **in conjunction with** various cognitive and behavioral techniques. Precisely what medical skills need to be acquired and how they are to be taught depends on an individual's role and level of experience. I will leave these recommendations to experts in the field of emergency medicine and critical care.

As far as the cognitive and behavioral skills go, I will attempt to outline some key techniques. I would hasten to add that these, too, need to be adapted to different settings. Also, at least in my opinion, they need to be individualized. Some people have an easier time with certain techniques than others. That's fine. Develop a habit of using the various psychological tools that work best for you. It is also worth pointing out that I developed the concepts of Performance Enhancing Psychological Skills (PEPS) and also the components of "Beat The Stress Fool" or BTSF (for more on this check out the post on Enhancing Human Performance in Resuscitation) from the following list of evidence-based techniques:

Cognitive Control Techniques

The foundation of evidenced-based cognitive behavioral therapy in psychiatry is the fact that there is fundamental connection between what a person thinks, what they feel, and how they act. Cognitive control techniques are designed to provide control over distracting or stress-inducing thoughts. At it's core, this is essentially a metacognitive process. The individual is taught to recognize deleterious or distracting thought processes and stopping them. The negative thoughts are replaced with positive, task-focused thoughts.

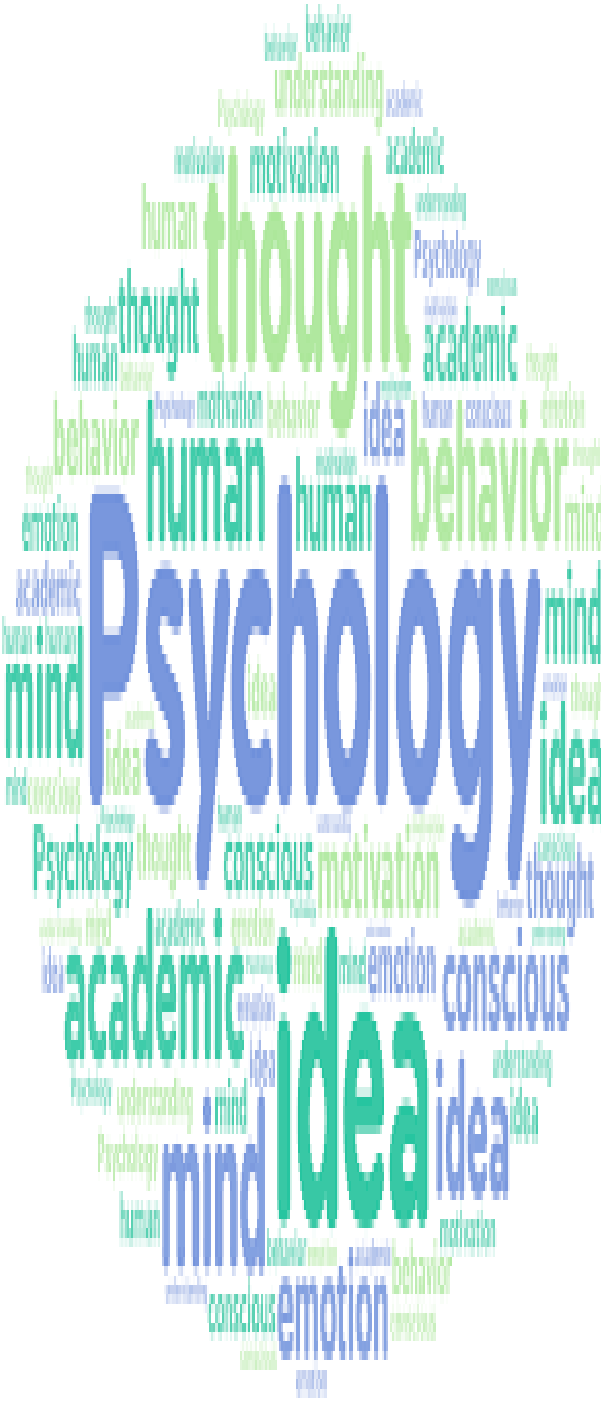
Say, for example, that a patient presents to you in respiratory failure. At first glance, just based on preliminary information you immediately think "Oh crap! That looks like a difficult airway. I haven't had one of these in a while." You feel your heart rate start to increase and you start to experience feelings of doubt or anxiety. A cognitive control strategy might be to tell yourself… "It might be difficult, but I can take care of this. I have been trained to manage difficult airways and I have managed them before. I know the various steps I can take to optimize oxygenation and maximize my

chance of first pass success. I have a great team to support me. I can do this." You could even make it even more specific. It could, perhaps, be made even more task specific by including individual steps. Regarding patient preoxygenation, you could invoke the words of airway master, Dr. Richard Levitan, and say "Sit the patient up, jaw forward, O's through the nose." These thoughts or self-suggestions are positive, self-affirming, and task specific. They not only use thoughts to change emotional condition (decrease fear or anxiety),[19] but they also hone attention on the task at hand. Both are important aspects of dealing with stress and improving performance in this situation.[20,21]

Physiological Control Techniques

These strategies are aimed at controlling specific physiological parameters. Certain physiological responses, such as tachycardia and hyperventilation, magnify the effects of anxiety and contribute to the unfavorable effects of stress on fine motor control, visual acuity, and cognition. Some effective techniques include progressive relaxation or biofeedback.[22,23] However, these techniques are not always feasible when suddenly presented with a decompensating patient. One method that shows great promise and could easily be applied in resuscitation is controlled breathing. Different techniques of breathing have been used in diverse fields: from yoga, meditation, and martial arts to public speaking and athletics.

UNIT-7 Personality, Motivation, emotion, stress and coping MCQs



DIWAKAR EDUCATION HUB

1- Mismatch between personality and organization may lead(s) to
(A) Confusion and chaos
(B) Loss of interest by members in organization
(C) Low morale and job satisfaction
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

2- A _____ person has a cause and an ideology to fight for achieving the set goal.
(A) Self-actualized
(B) Self-confident
(C) Self-driven
(D) Self-disciplined
Ans. A

3- The techniques such as interviews, questionnaires, etc. are used in the _____ stage related to management of change.
(A)Training
(B) Diagnosis
(C) Recruitment
(D) All of the above
Ans. B

4- The team whose members collaborate through use of various information technologies is known as _____ team.
(A) Virtual
(B) Ideal
(C) Real
(D) None of the above
Ans. A

5- Which personality theories give recognition to continuity of personalities?
(A) Humanistic
(B) Integrative
(C) Trait
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

6- Major determinants of personality

(A) Biological
(B) Situation
(C) Both (A) and (B)
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

7- Caused by travails of life to meet deadlines
(A) Hyper work stress
(B) Eustress
(C) Distress
(D) All of the above
Ans. A

8- Caused by less than optimum activity
(A) Distress

(B) Eustress
(C) Hypo stress
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

9- Identify the process influence personality development.
(A) Socialization process
(B) Identification process
(C) Both (A) and (B)
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

10- Roger's defines the _____ as an organized, consistent, conceptual gestalt composed of perceptions of the characteristics of the 'I' or 'me'.
(A) The self concept
(B) The work concept
(C) The team concept
(D) None of the above
Ans. A

11- Identify the primary level(s) of conflict(s) (A) Intrapersonal
(B) Interpersonal
(C) Intergroup
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

12- State the reason(s) for individual resistance
(A) Personal reasons
(B) Economic reasons
(C) Social reasons
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

13- Fiedler has described situational favorableness in terms of three empirically derived dimensions, viz:-
(A) The leader member relationship, The degree of task structure, The leader's positional power
(B) The leader member relationship, The degree of organization structure, The leader's positional power
(C) The leader member relationship, The degree of task structure, The leader's positional level
(D) The leader member relationship, The degree of organization structure, The leader's positional level
Ans. A

14- Identify the main reason(s) for resistance to change, as advocated by Keith Davis
(A) Obsolescence of skills
(B) Fear of unknown
(C) Preference for status quo
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

15- _____ is the science of human behavior.

(A) Psychology
(B) Philosophy
(C) Sociology
(D) None of the above
Ans. A

16- Identify the key principle(s) for integrative (win-win) negotiations
(A), Invent options for mutual gains
(B) Focus on interests and not positions
(C) Insist on using objective criteria
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

17-_____ is caused because of the modern life and anxiety to cope with them.
(A) Depression
(B) Distress
(C) Eustress
(D) None of the above
Ans. B

18- A person of lower than normal intelligence is less bored by _____ work.
(A) Repetitive
(B) Continuous
(C) Daily
(D) All of the above
Ans. A

19- What is the other name for vertical job loading?
(A)Job satisfaction
(B) Job enlargement
(C) Job enrichment
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

20- John and Peter are members of the Six-sigma team. What factor(s) may give rise to conflict between these two qualified members?
(A) John and Peter have incompatible needs
(B) Limited availability of resources
(C) Perception relating to the concerned issue
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

21- The conflict management style which refers to cooperative but unassertive behavior is known as _____.
(A) Accommodating style
(B) Working style
(C) Cooperative style
(D) None of the above
Ans. A

22- According to Frend the human mind is composed of
(A) Preconscious mind

(B) Conscious mind
(C) Unconscious mind
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

23- Behavioral scientists are focusing their attention on
(A) Relationship of organizational structure to human behavior
(B) Organizational adaptability
(C) Decision making
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

24- The process by which a third party helps two or more other parties to resolve their conflicts is known as _____.
(A) Mediation
(B) Cooperation
(C) Mutation
(D) None of the above
Ans. A

25- Ego controls
(A) The gateway of actions
(B) Select the feature of environment
(C) Decides what instincts will be satisfied
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

26- The relationship in which one person influences others to work together willingly on related tasks is known as _____.
(A) Delegation
(B) Leadership
(C) Management
(D) None of the above
Ans. B

27- Desire to be accepted by others
(A) Affiliation motive
(B) Achievement motive
(C) Primary motive
(D) Power motive
Ans. A

28- Desire to be successful
(A) Achievement motive
(B) Affiliation motive
(C) Primary motive
(D) Power motive
Ans. A

29- Avoidance of pain
(A) Achievement motive
(B) Affiliation motive
(C) Primary motive
(D) Power motive
Ans. C

30- Desire to control others
(A) Achievement motive

(B) Affiliation motive
(C) Power motive
(D) Primary motive
Ans. C

31- Good match between individual personality and organization is essential because of
(A) Some people have passion for bureaucracy
(B) Some people prefer autonomy flexibility in operation
(C) Both (A) and (B)
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

32- Ego reduces tension by performing task of
(A) Perceiving outside world
(B) Remembering experience with outside world
(C) Acting to satisfy the instinctual wishes
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

33- Following is the specific characteristic(s) of high achiever
(A) Moderate risk taker
(B) Satisfied with his accomplishment
(C) Need for immediate feedback
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

34- Organizational socialization includes
(A) Developing competencies
(B) Developing organizational values
(C) Developing social and working relationship
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

35- According to Vroom's theory, _____ is the result of multiplication of valence and expectancy.
(A) Motivation
(B) Management
(C) Delegation
(D) Organization
Ans. A

36- Which type of motivator(s) is (are) involved in granting additional authority to an employee in his activity?
(A) Responsibility
(B) Recognition
(C) Both (A) and (B)
(D) None of the above
Ans. C

37- An individual can cope with stress through _____.

(A) Regular exercise
(B) The self concept
(C) Self control
(D) Self motivation
Ans. A

38- In order to understand the Rogers' theory one needs to understand which of the following?
(A) The self concept
(B) The organism
(C) The development of self
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

39- ___ is an event which leads to creation of a life stressor.
(A) Festival
(B) Marriage
(C) Conference
(D) Workshop
Ans. B

40- Personality is affected by which of the following factor(s)?
(A) Heredity
(B) Culture
(C) Family
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

41- Trait theories
(A) Allport, Cattell and Sheldon
(B) Likert's scale
(C) Sigmund Freud
(D) Carl Rogers
Ans. A

42- Summed rating measure
(A) Allport, Cattell and Sheldon
(B) Likert's scale
(C) Sigmund Freud
(D) Carl Rogers
Ans. B

43- Self theory
(A) Allport, Cattell and Sheldon
(B) Likert's scale
(C) Sigmund Freud
(D) Carl Rogers
Ans. D

44- Intrapsychic theory
(A) Allport, Cattell and Sheldon
(B) Likert's scale
(C) Sigmund Freud
(D) Carl Rogers
Ans. C

45- Manager's role changed from that of a leader to that of partner in a _____ type of organization.
(A) Collegial
(B) Autocratic
(C) Custodial
(D) Supportive

Ans. A

46- Identify the situation(s) which reflect upward communication
(A) Suggestion boxes kept in the worker's canteen
(B) Performance reports of workers
(C) Employee attitude surveys
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

47- The blue print of human behavior at work is represented by
(A) Procedures, Rules, Regulations
(B) Procedures, Rules, Coordination
(C) Procedures, Motivation, Regulations
(D) Procedures, Motivation, Coordination
Ans. A

48- Select the factor(s) which is (are) helpful in understanding perceptual organization.
(A) Perceptual grouping
(B) Perceptual constancy
(C) Closure principle
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

49- Two factor theory of motivation
(A) Harold Kelley
(B) Douglas McGregor
(C) Herzberg
(D) J. Stacy Adams
Ans. C

50- Commonalities and differences suggest in certain respects, every person is like
(A) All other people
(B) Some other people
(C) No other person
(D) All of the above
Ans. D

51. Some behavior patterns appear only after a specific developmental stage or time. This stage or time is called:
(a) Imprinting
(b) maturation
(c) Learning
(d) Instinct
Ans. B

52. The inherited behavior is called instincts:
(a) Imprinting
(b) Learning
(c) maturation
(d) Instinct
Ans. D

53. The change of behavior by life experiences is called:

(a) Instinct
(b) maturation
(c) Learning
(d) Imprinting
Ans. C

54. The decrease in response to repeated or continuous stimulation is called:

a. Instinct
b. maturation
c. habituation
d. Imprinting

Ans. C

55. The uses cognitive or mental processes to associate experiences and solve problems are called:

(a) Instinct
(b) maturation
(c) habituation
(d) insight
Ans. D

56. The behavior in which one animal is aggressive or attacks another animal, the other responds by returning the aggression or submitting is called:

(a) agnostic
(b) Territory
(c) Hierarchy
(d) Altruism
Ans. A

57. The organization of group of animals in such a way that some members of the group have greater access to resources like food or mates than others is called:

(a) agnostic
(b) Territory
(c) Hierarchy
(d) Altruism
Ans. C

58. The site defend by territorial animal by agonistic behavior is:

(a) Hierarchy
(b) Altruism
(c) agnostic
(d) Territory
Ans. D

59. The interaction in which an individual gives up or sacrifices some of its own

reproductive potential to benefit another individual is called:

(a) agnostic
(b) Territory
(c) Hierarchy
(d) Altruism
Ans:D

60. Each of our _____ consists of tightly coiled DNA.

- **a. chromosomes**
- **b. cell proteins**
- **c. nucleotides**
- **d. amino acids**

Ans. A

61. Genes regulate protein synthesis by

- **a. coding for the arrangement of ribosomes on DNA molecules.**
- **b. specifying which amino acids will be joined together, and in what order.**
- **c. regulating the influx of ions like sodium and potassium, which code for proteins.**
- **d. setting the cell's biological clock and controlling how and when a cell divides.**

Ans. B

62. The fusion of your father's sperm and your mother's egg is referred to as

- **a. gene expression.**
- **b. spermatization.**
- **c. fertilization.**
- **d. epigenetics.**

Ans. C

63. Even though your body changes and you develop new physical and behavioral characteristics, your _____ never changes.

- **a. archetype**
- **b. phenotype**
- **c. appearance**
- **d. genotype**

Ans. D

64. How do gene mutations contribute to evolution?

- **a. Beneficial mutations are passed on to several members of a generation, quickly taking hold in a population.**
- **b. Unfavorable mutations have a more significant effect on genes than do favorable mutations, so they are**

spread through the population.

c. Natural selection favors beneficial mutations, so they survive and are passed on to future generations.

d. Beneficial and unfavorable mutations take hold in the population equally over numerous generations.

Ans. C

65. The process by which a cell directs a gene to make a certain protein is called

a. gene expression.

b. DNA extraction.

c. chromosome assembly.

d. genetic modification.

Ans. A

66. Epigenetics is most concerned with

a. changes in a person's genotype resulting from environmental influences.

b. the expression of a particular gene as influenced by external inputs.

c. environmental influences on gene expression over experiential influences.

d. the heritability of genotypes that have been altered over multiple generations.

Ans. B

67. In the experiment with dull and bright rats, Cooper and Zubek demonstrated a gene—environment interaction by showing that when navigating the maze

a. dull rats raised in all environments always made more errors.

b. bright rats raised in enriched environments sometimes made more errors.

c. dull rats raised in enriched environments eventually performed as well as bright rats.

d. dull rats raised in impoverished environments performed poorly.

Ans. C

68. Why are dominant, yet harmful, alleles like the *huntingtin* gene so rare in our genomes?

a. Only a few harmful alleles affect the nervous system.

b. The carrier does not survive long enough to pass on the allele.

c. The alleles for disorders are not active until adulthood.

d. The allele can be transmitted only to another dominant carrier.

Ans. B

69. Before the mechanisms behind PKU were known to science, infants that inherited the genes for the disorder almost always

a. maintained a low body weight.

b. developed mental impairments.

c. grew to pass on the genes to offspring.

d. died before the age of ten.

Ans. B

70. The effects of PKU are epigenetic because

a. having two genes for PKU doubles the chances that phenylalanine will impact a child's brain development.

b. a child inherits two genes for PKU only when environmental conditions are favorable.

c. phenylalanine causes mental deficits even if a child inherits just one gene for PKU.

d. PKU is harmful only if a child ingests significant amounts of phenylalanine.

Ans. D

71. Which single gene effect do men display more often than women?

a. The inability to distinguish red from green

b. The inability to distinguish different pitches

c. A gradual decline in the ability to focus on distant objects

d. A gradual decline in the ability to hear

Ans. A

72. One reason dysfunctional alleles can have such specific effects on the workings of our sensory systems is that

a. only one allele has a significant effect on each system.

b. the toxicity of dysfunctional alleles degrades the action of the entire brain.

c. our sensory systems rely on the functioning of more than one protein.

d. only a single allele needs to be dysfunctional to result in a deficit.

Ans. C

73. Which statement best describes a valid gene—environment interaction on behavior?

a. Identical twins adopted by different families often display behaviors typical of their adoptive families.

b. In rats, littermates reared by mothers of different strains display the same exploratory behavior as their biological siblings.

c. Two people with the same phenotype may not share the same genotype.

d. Shrews raised in a lab without their mother fail to nurture their young.

Ans. A

74. Which confounding variable is teased out when psychologists study the traits of identical twins?

a. Similar environments shared by relatives

b. Shared zygotes of monozygotic twins

c. The influence of dysfunctional alleles

d. The genetic influence of the *huntingtin* gene

Ans. A

75. Dizygotic twins

a. have identical DNA.

b. appear to be identical.

c. rarely resemble each other.

d. grow from separate zygotes.

Ans. D

76. Twins who do *not* share 100 percent of their genes are called

a. dizygotic.

b. monozygotic.

c. identical.

d. discordant.

Ans. A

77. Twins who share a certain physical or behavioral trait are _____ for that trait.

a. discordant

b. monozygotic

c. dizygotic

d. concordant

Ans. D

78. Heritability estimates tell us

a. the degree to which variations in a population can be attributed to genetics.

b. the rate at which people in a given population develop a particular disorder.

c. the percentage of people who can pass on a specific gene to a child.

d. the chance that any one person will carry a particular gene.

Ans. A

79. What is the key difference between twin studies and adoption studies?

a. Twin studies involve identical twins, while adoption studies involve fraternal twins.

b. In twin studies, the effects of the environment are not taken into consideration.

c. In adoption studies, twins are separated at birth, adopted, and raised apart.

d. Adoption studies involve non-twin biological siblings raised by different families.

Ans. C

80. Twin studies of the heritability of schizophrenia generally show that

a. there is a 50 percent difference in the genomes between those with schizophrenia and those without it.

b. 90 percent of twins who inherit genes for schizophrenia will develop symptoms.

c. monozygotic twins tend not to inherit genes for schizophrenia.

d. the heritability of schizophrenia is about 50 percent.

Ans. D

81. Schizophrenia most often presents itself at what stage?

a. Early childhood, when parental influences are most significant

b. Late childhood, when genetics

and family environment have the greatest impact

c. Early adulthood, when people begin to face the world on their own

d. Late adulthood, when brain and body cells are more susceptible to breaking down

Ans. C

82. In cases where only one of two identical twins develops schizophrenia, all of the following factors may be responsible *except*

a. birth weight.

b. birth order.

c. nutrition.

d. nurturing.

Ans. B

83. Which situation is most consistent with the results of twin studies of schizophrenia?

a. When both twins carry the gene for schizophrenia, only one will develop symptoms.

b. Schizophrenia is more likely to materialize in a twin who experiences extreme stress.

c. Twins who inherit the gene for schizophrenia very rarely present symptoms of the disorder.

d. Having a father with schizophrenia greatly increases the chance that male twins will develop the disorder.

Ans. B

84. What do studies of maternal nurturing behavior in rats suggest about humans?

a. Maternal nurturing causes children to release corticosterone, which reduces levels of stress and leads to more nurturing.

b. People who are adequately nurtured early in life tend to be less nurturing when they have children of their own.

c. Children with nurturing mothers develop fewer natural defenses to stress and are more likely to become suicidal.

d. Maternal neglect early in life may have lasting impacts on a person's ability to cope with life's challenges.

Ans. D

85. All the following are defense mechanisms of the ego, except:

A. Projection
B. Conversion
C. Reaction formation
D. Transference
Ans. D

86. Operant condition with paradigm pain stimulus given to a child for behaviour therapy is:
A. Positive reinforcement
B. Negative reinforcement
C. Punishment
D. Negotiation
Ans. C

87. Psychoanalysis was discovered by:
A. Alder
B. Bleuler
C. Morton
D. Sigmund Freud
Ans. D

88. Appropriate management of phobias includes:
A. Systematic desensitization
B. Chlorpromazine
C. Bio feed base
D. ECT
Ans. A

89. Mature defense mechanism is:
A. Denial
B. Anticipation
C. Projection
D. Reaction
Other mature defenses are:
Sublimation,
suppression,
humor,
altruism,
ascetism.
Ans. B

90. Mature defense mechanism is seen in:
A. Regression
B. Altruism
C. Repression
D. None
Other mature defenses:
Ascetism
Anticipation
Sublimation
Suppression
Humor
Ans. B

91. That part of the mind which is working on reality principle is:
A. Id
B. Ego
C. Super ego
D. Ego-ideal
Ans. B

92. One of the important defense mechanism is:
A. Anticipation
B. Confabulation
C. Repression
D. Suppression
Ans. C

93. Which of the following excludes painful stimuli from awareness?
A. Repression
B. Projection
C. Rationalism
D. Reaction formation
Ans. A

94. According to Sartre, existentialism is a doctrine intended strictly for:

- **a. all people.**
- **b. specialists and philosophers.**
- **c. Europeans.**
- **d. atheists.**

Ans. B

95 .What all existentialists have in common, according to Sartre, is the view that:

- **a. God does not exist, and so everything is permitted.**
- **b. all humans share a common nature.**
- **c. existence precedes essence.**
- **d. essence precedes existence.**

Ans. C

95. In Sartre's view, when one chooses how to live one is choosing:

- **a. only for oneself.**
- **b. for all of one's family.**
- **c. for all of one's friends.**
- **d. for all people.**

Ans. D

96. Sartre claims that when he speaks of *forlornness,* he means that:

- **a. God does not exist and we must face all the consequences of this.**
- **b. we can never truly know another human being.**
- **c. we are not responsible for our passions.**
- **d. all of the above.**

Ans. A

97. According to Sartre, the existentialist finds the fact that God does not exist:

- a. liberating.
- b. clarifying.
- c. very distressing.
- d. unimportant.

Ans. C

98. In Sartre's view, humans are responsible for:

- a. their actions.
- b. their passions.
- c. both a and b.
- d. neither a nor b.

Ans. C

99. Sartre claims that the value of one's affection is determined by:

- a. the way one acts.
- b. the way one feels.
- c. the way one thinks.
- d. all of the above.

Ans. A

100. Sartre claims that according to existentialism, there is no reality except in:

- a. passion.
- b. action.
- c. contemplation.
- d. appetite.

Ans. B

101. Who defined "group mind" as under:

"It (Group mind) consists of the same stuff as individual minds, its threads and parts lie within these minds but the parts in the several individual minds reciprocally imply and complement one another and make up the system which consists wholly of them",

(a) Mc Dougall
(b) J. B. Watson
(c) J. S. Mill
(d) William James

Ans. A

102. For Mc Dougall, the seat of conscious mental activity is:

(a) Mind
(b) Soul
(c) Synapse
(d) Libido

Ans. C

103. Who has rightly revealed that Behaviourism has reduced the person "to a large white rat or a slower computer"?

(a) J. B. Watson
(b) R. S. Woodworth
(c) Bugental
(d) Maslow
Ans. C

104. Who has rightly commented, "The study of 1 crippled, sturted, immature and unhealthy specimens can yield only a cripple psychology and cripple philosophy"?
(a) Abraham Maslow
(b) Carl Rogers
(c) J. B. Watson
(d) R. S. Woodworth
Ans. A

105. Who was considered as "Spiritual father of humanism in America?
(a) J.B. Watson
(b) Carl Rogers
(c) R. S. Woodworth
(d) Abraham Maslow 1
Ans. D

106. Who assumed that every person has an inherent tendency to actualize his unique potential?
(a) Abraham Maslow
(b) Carl Rogers
(c) R. S. Woodworth 1
(d) J.B. Watson
Ans. B

107. Abraham Maslow assumed a holistic approach to:
(a) Perception
(b) Motivation
(c) Learning
(d) Intelligence
Ans. B

108. Maslow's self-actualization theory has been best explained in terms of:
(a) Perceptual Processes
(b) Intellectual Processes
(c) Creativity
(d) Motivational Processes
Ans. D

109. Alfred Adler's striving for superiority and Erik Erikson's need for mastery are similar to Maslow's concept of:
(a) Belongingness Need
(b) Esteem Needs
(c) Need for self-actualization
(d) Safety Needs
Ans. B

110. Self-actualization refers to the desire for:
(a) Self-fulfillment
(b) Security

(c) Sex satisfaction
(d) Love and belongingness
Ans. A

111. In framing the concept of "Self-actualization", Maslow (1970) has acknowledged 1 his debt to:
(a) Kurt Lewin
(b) Kurt Goldstein
(c) Carl Rogers
(d) R. S. Woodworth
Ans. B

112. Need for self-actualization is an umbrella need that covers:
(a) 10 metaneeds or being values
(b) 100 metaneeds or being values
(c) 20 metaneeds or being values
(d) 17 metaneeds or being values
Ans. D

113. Abraham Maslow is well-known for his concept of:
(a) Hierarchical model of motivation
(b) Topographical Psychology
(c) Field Theory
(d) Life Space
Ans. A

114. Self-actualization need lies at the top of the hierarchy where only:
(a) 50% people reach
(b) 10% people reach
(c) 80% people reach
(d) 100% people reach
Ans. B

115. The existential Psychology is highly related to Humanistic Psychology. These two systems together constituted the:
(a) Third force in psychology
(b) Fourth force in psychology
(c) First force in psychology
(d) Second force in psychology
Ans. A

116. Existential Psychology deals with person as such who exists as:
(a) A being-in-the-world
(b) An animal
(c) A psychophysical entity
(d) An environmental product
Ans. A

117. The basic aim of existential psychology is to understand a person in his:
(a) Motivational cycle
(b) Situational world
(c) Environmental cycle
(d) Existential reality
Ans. D

118. Soren Kierkegard was a/an:
(a) American Philosopher

(b) Danish Philosopher
(c) English Philosopher
(d) Swiss Philosopher
Ans. B

119. When a person meaningfully communicates with others, he is said to have:
(a) Existed
(b) Communicated
(c) Restricted
(d) Preferred
Ans. A

120. The very term "existential neurosis" was first explained by:
(a) Rollo may (1909)
(b) Maddi (1967)
(c) Martin Heidegger (1899)
(d) Karl Jaspers (1960)
Ans. B

121. For cognitive psychologists, psychology is the study of:
(a) Experience
(b) Mind and Soul
(c) Behaviour
(d) Higher and mental processes
Ans. D

122. When the child is about two years old, he develops the ability to respond to even those objects there not observable. This is called:
(a) Egocentrism
(b) Object permanence
(c) Semiotic function
(d) Animism
Ans. B

123. In pre-operational stage, the "intuitive period" is also known as:
(a) Sensori-motor Period
(b) Perceptual Period
(c) Concrete Operational Period
(d) Formal Operational Period
Ans. B

124. "Childhood shows the man as morning ' hows the day". – This quotation reveals the importance of:
(a) Early childhood influence on the development of personality
(b) The influence of environment on personality
(c) Childhood of important personalities
(d) Importance of childhood in our lives
Ans. A

125. The holistic approach considers man as:
(a) Religious
(b) A unified organism

(c) A dualistic being
(d) An emotional being
Ans. B

126. According to Jean Piaget, egocentrism is a major hindrance to:
(a) Memory
(b) Cognitive Development
(c) Learning
(d) Creativity
Ans. B

127. In the development of language and thinking, the child tends to display:
(a) Egocentric attitudes and centration
(b) Abnormal behaviour
(c) Assimilation and accommodation
(d) Seriation and accommodation
Ans. A

128. According to Piaget, during age 4 to 7, there is decrease of gross absurdity in thinking and reasoning. The child has now some ideas of classes or concepts. So he groups objects by:
(a) Proximity
(b) Similarity
(c) Pranaz
(d) Closure
Ans. B

129. The ability of the child to maintain equivalence inspite of change in the perceptual field is called:
(a) Reversibility
(b) Assimilation
(c) Seriation
(d) Centration
Ans. A

130. For children, Piaget observed two types of speech which are very often used. These are:
(a) Egocentric and Socialized speech
(b) Haphazard and Distorted speech
(c) Symbolic and socialized speech
(d) Communicative and Distorted speech
Ans. A

131. Jean Piaget stressed the educational significance of learning in a/an:
(a) Social context
(b) Physical context
(c) Environmental context
(d) Psychophysical context
Ans. A

132. When a child gives evidence of being fluent, flexible, original and elaborative, he is said to be:

(a) Intelligent
(b) Creative
(c) Gifted
(d) Dull
Ans. B

133. For the first time, who has introduced the technique of "Brain Storming"?
(a) J. B. Watson
(b) Osborn
(c) Jean Piaget
(d) R. S. Woodworth
Ans. B

134. Noam Chomsky's major contribution to cognitive psychology was his theory of:
(a) Language
(b) Grammar
(c) Concept
(d) Equivalence Formation
Ans. B

135. Chomsky has developed a psycholinguistic theory of language development having a/an:
(a) Biological base
(b) Psychological base
(c) Psychophysical base
(d) Physiological base
Ans. A

136. Chomsky has assumed some innate neurological mechanisms which facilitate child's acquisition of syntax. These mechanisms are called:
(a) Language Acquisition Device (LAD)
(b) Surface Structure
(c) Transformational Rules
(d) Deep Structure
Ans. A

137. Who viewed that the major problem in understanding a language is to derive deep structure from the surface structure of the sentences?
(a) Noam Chomsky
(b) B. F. Skinner
(c) E. C. Tolman
(d) J. B. Watson
Ans. A

138. The "meaning" of the sentence is determined by:
(a) Deep structure
(b) Surface structure
(c) Language acquisition Device
(d) Productive aspect of Language
Ans. A

139. An attempt to explain something unknown in terms of

already known principles is known as:
(a) Model
(b) Concept
(c) Theory
(d) Hypothesis
Ans. A

140. Information-processing model attempts to explain cognition in terms of the principles of operation of:
(a) Machines
(b) Computers
(c) Galvanometers
(d) Barometers
Ans. B

141. The "Information Processing Model" has given birth to the concept of:
(a) Artificial Intelligence
(b) Abstract Intelligence
(c) General Intelligence
(d) Situational Intelligence
Ans. A

142. Intellectual capacities of computers are called:
(a) General Intelligence
(b) Artificial Intelligence
(c) Specific Intelligence
(d) Abstract Intelligence
Ans. B

143. Information Processing Models have given birth to the concept of "artificial intelligence" which is very important to study:
(a) Memory
(b) Intelligence
(c) Learning
(d) Problem solving Behaviour
Ans. D

144. Bandura has placed importance on:
(a) Instrumental Learning
(b) Insightful Learning
(c) Classical conditioning
(d) Modelling or Observational Learning
Ans. D

145. Modern Psychology has been unduly influenced by:
(a) Information Processing Model
(b) Structuralism
(c) Functionalism
(d) Gestalt Psychology
Ans. A

146. In ancient psychology of India, transformation and modification of mind are done through:
(a) Dharma

(b) Abhidharma
(c) Karma
(d) Yoga
Ans. D

147. The First Indian Psychological laboratory was established in the University of:
(a) Madras in 1928
(b) Calcutta in 1915
(c) Utkal in 1958
(d) Patna in 1960
Ans. B

148. Who has established the "Psychoanalytic Society" in India in the year 1922?
(a) Prof. Girindra Sekhar Bose
(b) Prof. G. C. Mishra
(c) Dr. R. N. Rath
(d) Prof. Maithili Jha
Ans. A

149. Indian Psychological Association was formed in the year:
(a) 1920
(b) 1930
(c) 1925
(d) 1950
Ans. C

150. The famous book "Origin of Species" deals with the theory of:
(a) Creativity
(b) Evolution
(c) Intelligence
(d) Libido
Ans. B

151. Folk Psychology deals with:
(a) Folk literature
(b) Folk art
(c) Folk behaviour
(d) Folk mythology
Ans. C

152. When and where did the first International Congress of Psychology meet?
(a) In Vienna in 1897
(b) In Paris in 11889
(c) In New Delhi in 1909
(d) In Kathmandu in 1990
Ans. B

153. A system is based upon determinism, empiricism, reductionism and environmentalism. Name the system.
(a) Gestalt Psychology
(b) Behaviourism
(c) Psychoanalysis
(d) Structuralism
Ans. B

154. Behaviourism regards personality as the totality of:
(a) Environmental products
(b) Behavioural patterns
(c) Cultural products
(d) S-R connections
Ans. A

155. Who has perceived human behaviour as a result of the motion of a fluid from the sense organs to the brain along the nerves and back from the brain to nerve endings in the muscles?
(a) Descartes
(b) Wilhelm Wundt
(c) J. S. Mill
(d) J.B. Watson
Ans. A

156. According to B.F. Skinner, the simple unit of behaviour is:
(a) Neuron
(b) Reflex
(c) Nervous System
(d) Nerves
Ans. B

157. Who viewed that whenever behaviour is correlated to specific eliciting stimuli, it is "respondent behaviour" and whenever no such stimuli are present it is called "operant behaviour"?
(a) J. B. Watson
(b) B. F. Skinner
(c) Clark H. Hull
(d) E. C. Tolman
Ans. B

158. Kurt Goldstein's psychological theory is based on the principles of constancy or equalization of:
(a) Sources
(b) Energy
(c) Intelligence
(d) Response
Ans. B

159. The idea of pleasure and unpleasure are related to the mental economy of excitation. This concept was borrowed by Sigmund Freud from:
(a) Weber
(b) Fechner
(c) Watson
(d) Pavlov
Ans. B

160. In 1895, Breuer and Freud have published a volume entitled "Studies in Hysteria". These studies reported successful treatment of hysterical symptoms by a method called:

(a) Observation
(b) Introspection
(c) Hypnotism
(d) Catharsis
Ans. D

161. The law of proximity in perception becomes a law of "temporal contiguity" in the:
(a) Personality Theory
(b) Learning Theory
(c) Theory of Creativity
(d) Theory of Intelligence
Ans. B

162. In the "Oral Biting Period" of Psychosexual Development, the libido is fixated on the:
(a) Physical Self
(b) Genital Organs
(c) Hands
(d) Heads
Ans. A

163. Who held that human beings only go through an oedipal phase probably due to two reasons – (i) Because of the close knit character of human family formation and the utter helplessness of children during their first few years and (ii) the ability of helpless little boys and girls to build fantasies and daydreams about sexuality including ideas about parental intercourse, to entertain fantastic hopes of possessing a loved parent and in most cases to recognise the anatomical roof of sex differences even though they may misinterpret its source?
(a) Benedeck (1959)
(b) Cameron (1969)
(c) Rangell (1955)
(d) Otto rank (1929)
Ans. B

164. According to Rangell (1955), the preoedipal child enters his oedipal phase with only infantile precursors of a/an:
(a) Super Ego
(b) Ego
(c) Id
(d) Unconscious
Ans. A

165. "It seems probable that the "Oedipal Phase" is biologically predetermined or atleast that given such a close knit unit as the human family in the Western Culture, it is biologically inevitable." Who has given the above statement?
(a) C.G. Jung (1919)
(b) Benedeck (1959)

(c) Cameron (1969)
(d) Rangell (1955)
Ans. B

166. The tendency of men to marry women resembling their mother and the tendency of girls to marry men resembling their father indicates the shadow of:
(a) Electra Complex
(b) Oedipus Complex
(c) Narcissism
(d) Libido
Ans. B

167. Constipation is a common defence reaction against:
(a) Elimination
(b) Fixation
(c) Repression
(d) Regression
Ans. A

168. Excessive fixation in the "anal stage" may lead people to develop the tendency to be:
(a) Doctors
(b) Teachers
(c) Military men
(d) Industrialists
Ans. B

169. A sexual attachment towards one of the parents (of the opposite sex) with a concomitant jealousy towards the other parents is popularly known as:
(a) Fixation
(b) Narcissism
(c) Oedipus Complex
(d) Libido
Ans. C

170. Who has emphatically remarked in his theory, "Super ego is the heir to Oedipus Complex"?
(a) Sigmund Freud
(b) C. G. Jung
(c) Alfred Adler
(d) Otto Rank
Ans. A

171. The therapy formulated by Maslow which emphasizes the work of each individual and his personal growth self-direction is popularly known as:
(a) Behaviour Therapy
(b) Group Therapy
(c) Client-Centred Therapy
(d) Humanistic Therapy
Ans. D

172. The view that an organism can be understood only as a whole and

not as a sum of its components is called:
(a) Psychoanalytic
(b) Holistic
(c) Behaviouristic
(d) Structuralistic
Ans. B

173. The concept that needs arrange themselves in an order in terms of importance from the most basic biological needs to psychological needs is popularly known as:
(a) Hierarchy of Needs
(b) Homeostasis
(c) Reminiscence
(d) Imprinting
Ans. A

174. The residence for ex-mental patients who are attempting to return to normal life activities is commonly known as:
(a) Asylum
(b) Mental Hospital
(c) Half-way house
(d) Mental Clinics
Ans. C

175. Which school of Psychology always emphasized whole patterns rather than elements?
(a) Behaviourism
(b) Gestalt Psychology
(c) Functionalism
(d) Structuralism
Ans. B

176. A view of human beings that emphasises the individual's responsibility for becoming the kind of person he should be is called:
(a) Behaviourism
(b) Existentialism
(c) Structuralism
(d) Functionalism
Ans. B

177. Repetition of another person's actions or gestures is known as:
(a) Echolalia
(b) Echophraxia
(c) Enuresis
(d) Estrangement
Ans. B

178. The school of psychology which considers overt behaviour as its field of study is popularly known as:
(a) Structuralism
(b) Behaviourism
(c) Functionalism
(d) Gestalt Psychology
Ans. B

179. A firm belief that everything is unreal, is otherwise known as:
(a) Abnormal Delusion
(b) Delusion of persecution
(c) Delusion of Grandure
(d) Nihilistic Delusion
Ans. D

180. An escape mechanism by which a person avoids facing frustration by moving from place to place or job to job is popularly known as:
(a) Rationalization
(b) Nomadism
(c) Sublimation
(d) Reaction Formation
Ans. B

181. A model or pattern used in the collection and interpretation of data is otherwise known as:
(a) Control group
(b) Experimental group
(c) Paradigm
(d) Population
Ans. C

182. The process of treating abnormal psychological conditions by means of drugs is known as:
(a) Psychosurgery
(b) Psychotherapy
(c) Psychopathology
(d) Psychopharmacology
Ans. D

183. The branch of Psychology which studies psychological aspects of teaching and upbringing is known as:
(a) Educational Psychology
(b) Pedagogic Psychology
(c) School Psychology
(d) Developmental Psychology
Ans. B

184. The sequence of events in the evolution of groups of organisms is known as:
(a) Phrenology
(b) Phylogenesis
(c) Physiognomy
(d) Pictogram
Ans. B

185. The famous doctrine advanced by Franz Gall that human or animal mental features are associated with the shape of the skull is known as:
(a) Physiognomy
(b) Phrenology
(c) Phylogenesis
(d) Pictogram
Ans. B

186. A branch of "Special Psychology" which examines the

mental development of the blind and people with poor eyesight is called:
(a) Tropisms
(b) Typhopsychology
(c) Abnormal Psychology
(d) Clinical Psychology
Ans. B

187. E. C. Tolman's theory represents an eclectic approach towards:
(a) Personality
(b) Creativity
(c) Learning
(d) Intelligence
Ans. A

188. In his theory, E. C. Tolman has revealed about a type of learning in which the learner has to identify and determine his own drive state and respond accordingly. Name the type of learning.
(a) Drive Discrimination
(b) Field Expectancy
(c) Equivalence Beliefs
(d) Field Cognition Modes
Ans. A

189. For Wilhelm Wundt, attention was a perception of a narrow region of:
(a) Unconscious
(b) Consciousness
(c) Subconscious
(d) Super ego
Ans. B

190. The idea of "Consolidation" in memory was depicted by:
(a) G. E. Muller
(b) E. B. Titchener
(c) Wilhelm Wundt
(d) J. B. Watson
Ans. A

191. The concept of "Consolidation in memory" was helpful to explain the phenomenon of:
(a) Emotion
(b) Forgetting
(c) Thinking
(d) Personality
Ans. B

192. C. G. Lange was a/an:
(a) American Physiologist
(b) German Psychologist
(c) English Psychologist
(d) Danish Physiologist
Ans. D

193. According to Guthrie, Thorndike's concept of reward and

punishment could also be replaced by:
(a) The law of Readiness
(b) Single trial learning
(c) The law of Effect
(d) The Principle of last response
Ans. D

194. According to E.C. Tolman, cathexis is a type of learning in which the association appears to be formed between:
(a) Certain objects and certain drive states
(b) Stimulus and Organism
(c) Stimulus and Response
(d) Response and Organism
Ans. A

195. In which type of Tolman's learning, the motor patterns are associated with or conditioned by behaviour?
(a) Drive Discrimination
(b) Motor patterns
(c) Field cognition modes
(d) Field Expectancy
Ans. B

196. E. C. Tolman's "Field Expectancy" learning is not the usual SR learning, rather it is :
(a) S-O-R learning
(b) S-S learning
(c) S-P learning
(d) S-G learning
Ans. B

197. Very often, a sub-goal like scoring of high grades provides the same motivation as might be provided by the main goal like winning love and appreciation etc. The learning performed in such a condition is said to be the:
(a) Equivalence Beliefs Learning
(b) Field Expectancy
(c) Field cognition modes
(d) Drive Discrimination
Ans. A

198. In 1930, E. C. Tolman and his associate Charles Honzik performed an experiment to demonstrate:
(a) Latent Learning
(b) Insightful Learning
(c) Trial and Error Learning
(d) Classical Conditioning
Ans. A

199. Psychology has a long past, but:
(a) Short history
(b) Has no scientific basis
(c) No system
(d) No theory
Ans. A

200. Prior to 1879, psychology was a part of:
(a) Sociology
(b) Philosophy
(c) Anthropology
(d) Zoology
Ans. B

201. What is the difference between nomothetic and idiographic approaches to personality?

a. **nomothetic approaches seek to find generalized laws of behaviour that help us classify people in terms of their similarities, while idiographic approaches seek to find what makes people unique**
b. **nomothetic approaches view only the differences between people, while ideographic approaches seek to find similarities**
c. **ideographic approaches try to categorize people, while nomothetic approaches don't**

Answer: A

202. What is one of the main assumptions of the trait approach to personality?

a. **traits are not very stable across the lifespan and are therefore weak predictors of personality**
b. **traits stay relatively stable across the lifespan**
c. **traits change drastically around the age of 6 years, which has to be taken into account when predicting personality**

Answer: B

203. Sophie is a 22-year-old psychology student. She loves reading books and is a great drawer. She does go to parties every now and then, but she prefers to meet her friends for a coffee, movies or cooking together. She does not like to be the centre of attention. How would Eysenck make use of biological explanations to describe Sophie's personality trait?

a. **he would argue that Sophie has very low arousal levels in her ascending reticular activating system (ARAS)**
b. **he would argue that Sophie's autonomic nervous system is generally less aroused and therefore does not invoke a 'fight-or-flight' response in her**

c. **he would argue that Sophie has high arousal levels in her ascending reticular activating system (ARAS)**

Answer: C

204. What are the five personality traits identified by the five-factor model (McCrae & Costa, 1997)?

a. **extraversion, neuroticism, introversion, liveliness and agreeableness**
b. **agreeableness, openness to experience, introversion, neuroticism and conscientiousness**
c. **extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience and conscientiousness**

Answer: C

205. Peter studies Psychology in his first year. His friends know him as a very keen and eager student. He always carries a book with him and, every free minute, he works on some kind of thinking task. He loves to borrow books from the library that are meant for third year students. What is the best way to describe Peter?

a. **he has a high need for cognition**
b. **he has a high need for stimulation**
c. **he has a high need for attention**

Answer: A

206. Harold works for a big law firm in London. He is often confronted with challenging cases but manages to stay calm and does not stress out about it. He and his colleagues love to go bowling after work, and Harold is very good at it. Often, he wins, which makes him very happy, but he is just as happy when one of his colleagues takes the lead. Which type of personality best describes Harold?

a. **personality Type A**
b. **personality Type B**
c. **personality Type C**

Answer: B

207. Which of the following is NOT given as a criticism of the Type A/B personality theory?

a. **most of the research on Type A personality is purely correlational**
b. **there is a lack of cross-cultural research**

c. **the questionnaires that claim to measure Type A personality have poor internal reliability scores**

Answer: C

208. Allison is a very self-critical, restless and impatient person. She believes her personality can explain her stomach problems. What approach is she taking?

a. **specificity approach**
b. **generality approach**
c. **specificity approach and generality approach**

Answer: A

209. Renee has just recently quit smoking, and she was surprised how easy it was for her compared to the experiences of her friends. What is most likely to be TRUE for her?

a. **she has a high sense of self-efficacy**
b. **she has an internal locus of control**
c. **she has a high sense of self-efficacy and an internal locus of control**

Answer: C

210. What is meant by 'interactionism' in personality psychology?

a. **the view that the interaction between people shapes their personalities**
b. **the view that there is reciprocal interaction between personality, situations and the environment**
c. **the view that children should interact with other children as much as possible to shape a personality that will benefit them in their later lives**

Answer: B

211. In a typical memory experiment, participants are asked to recall stimuli in which phase?

a. **presentation**
b. **test**
c. **material**
d. **distinction**

Answer: B

212. Participants are NOT told that they will be tested on a list of words presented in an experiment. This provides evidence of

a. **intentional learning**
b. **a practice effect**
c. **incidental learning**

d. masked learning

Answer: C

213. A test where participants are asked to retrieve in any order stimuli previously presented is

a. cued recall
b. implicit memory
c. explicit memory
d. free recall

Answer: D

214. Participants take part in an experiment where they learn a number of words and are told that they will be tested later on what they have learned. This is a test of

a. explicit memory
b. recognition
c. implicit memory
d. interference

Answer: A

215. Storage is

a. the stage of memory where information is interpreted and transferred
b. the stage of memory where information is committed
c. the stage of memory most affected by direct manipulation in experiments
d. the stage of memory between presentation of stimuli and before test

Answer: D

216. Investigating what factors can affect memory storage can be done by

a. manipulating what happens before the test phase
b. informing people that they will be tested
c. providing recall cues
d. manipulating what happens at the presentation phase

Answer: A

217. Which is NOT typically used to test memory retrieval?

a. dot probe task
b. word stem completion
c. cued recall
d. serial position effects

Answer: A

218. With immediate testing, recall accuracy is poorest for items that occur in which position of a list?

a. beginning
b. middle
c. end
d. no difference

Answer: B

219. Immediately testing recall can lead to greater recall for words at the end of a list. This is

a. **recency effect**
b. **primacy effect**
c. **serial position effect**
d. **superiority effect**

Answer: A

220. The recency effect in memory retrieval can be reduced when

a. **rehearsal is prevented**
b. **short- to long-term memory interference is introduced**
c. **a backwards masking task is used**
d. **retention interval is increased**

Answer: D

221. Which authors proposed the modal model of memory?

a. **Lansdale and Baguley (2008)**
b. **Tulving and Thompson (1975)**
c. **Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968)**
d. **Craik and Lockhart (1972)**

Answer: C

222. The modal model of memory was challenged on the grounds that

a. **impaired short-term memory does not disrupt long-term memory**
b. **Short-term memory has a limited capacity**
c. **longer time in short-term memory predicts likelihood of long-term memory**
d. **long-term memory has a limited capacity**

Answer: A

223. According to levels of processing, which of the following leads to the deepest level of memory?

a. **perceptual**
b. **semantic**
c. **associative**
d. **cue dependent**

Answer: B

224. A critical issue with the 'levels of processing' account of memory is

a. **the distinction between perceptual and semantic processing**
b. **it is not compatible with the modal model**
c. **determining the level of processing**
d. **it does not explain how information is retrieved**

Answer: C

225. Retrieval cues can improve recall because of

a. overlap between memories at encoding
b. interference or decay
c. traces still in short-term memory
d. greater storage capacity

Answer: A

226. 'Specific operations […] determine what is stored, and what is stored determines what retrieval cues are effective' refers to what term?

a. context-dependent memory
b. encoding specificity principle
c. levels of processing
d. forgetting function

Answer: B

227. Retroactive inhibition is a term of memory

a. decay
b. delay
c. retrieval
d. interference

Answer: D

228. Having prior memory associations that make it difficult to form new memory associations is termed

a. proactive inhibition
b. transfer appropriate processing
c. time-dependent decay
d. encoding specificity

Answer: A

229. Which of the following was proposed by Keppel (1968) to be most likely?

a. prior learning may interfere with new learning only when items are similar, but new learning interferes with all old learning
b. old learning can interfere with new learning, but new learning interferes with all old learning
c. all forgetting is caused by non-specific proactive inhibition
d. old learning only interferes with new learning when encoded in the same modality

Answer: A

230. What explains the mathematical forgetting curve?

a. retroactive inhibition
b. serial position
c. Jost's law
d. consolidation theory

Answer: C

231. Lansdale and Baguley (2008) predict that the probability of correct recall depends on

a. **proportion of correct memory traces**
b. **encoding specificity**
c. **context-dependent recall**
d. **retroactive inhibition**

Answer: A

232. Lansdale and Baguley (2008) argue that memory dilution occurs because

a. **long-term memory capacity is limited**
b. **the number of null traces decreases**
c. **memories become indistinct from similar memories**
d. **the memory becomes less temporally distinctive**

Answer: D

233. Which element was NOT found to alter accounts of the 'War of the Ghosts' story?

a. **rationalizations**
b. **distortions**
c. **omissions**
d. **intrusions**

Answer: C

234. The study of how the 'War of the Ghosts' story accounts became altered at recall was carried out by

a. **Bartlett (1932)**
b. **Godden and Baddeley (1975)**
c. **Postman and Phillips (1965)**
d. **Eysenck (1979)**

Answer: A

235. Eyewitness testimonies are an example of what kind of memory experiment?

a. **intentional learning**
b. **context-dependent learning**
c. **incidental learning**
d. **cue-dependent learning**

Answer: C

236. Which key academic is involved in the study of memory as a reconstructive process?

a. **A. Baddeley**
b. **H. Eysenck**
c. **G. Hitch**
d. **E. Loftus**

Answer: D

237. The accuracy of eyewitness testimonies can be improved with

a. **recovered memories**
b. **cognitive interviews**
c. **noise reduction**
d. **neurofeedback**

Answer: B

238. What can help improve the accuracy of eye witness testimonies?

a. serial position
b. context reinstatement
c. mnemonics
d. distributed practice

Answer: B

239. Memory can be improved when information to be learnt is

a. organized
b. written
c. spoken
d. elaborated

Answer: A

240. Which is a good method of revision:

a. intense sessions
b. spaced learning
c. 1 hour on/1 hour off
d. late night sessions

Answer: B

241. Mood is defined as

a. a short-lived feeling
b. being depressed for more than 1 month
c. a prevailing state of feeling
d. a temporary depression

Answer: C

242. Which of these supports the James-Lange theory of emotion?

a. emotion is a visceral response producing a behavioural response
b. artificial induction of visceral changes does not necessarily produce emotion
c. the viscera are 'insensitive structures'
d. visceral changes are the same in many emotions

Answer: A

243. The direct emotional circuit controlling fear comprises

a. eye, thalamus, sensory cortex, hippocampus, prefrontal cortex
b. eye, thalamus, amygdala, hypothalamus
c. eye, hypothalamus, visual cortex, striatum
d. eye, geniculate nucleus, hippocampus, prefrontal cortex

Answer: B

244. Which neurotransmitter is most commonly associated with depression?

a. serotonin

b. dopamine
c. septomin
d. glutamate

Answer: A

245. Which of the following is NOT an example of an intrinsically motivated activity?

a. eating a pie because you like pie
b. playing with a toy for the fun of it
c. revising for an exam to get a good grade
d. reading a book because you enjoy the story

Answer: C

246. According to Gray (1972), there are two types of personalities, specifically

a. those that are repelled by positive stimuli and those that are attracted to negative stimuli
b. those that are attracted to rewarding stimuli and those that tend to avoid aversive stimuli
c. those that are motivated by greed and those that are motivated by altruism
d. those that believe in simple binary divisions of personality and those that don't

Answer: B

247. Which of the following are NOT TRUE of motivation?

a. it is the drive, incentive or interest to initiate, perform or maintain a behaviour
b. it is independent of emotion or cognition
c. it is a preparatory phase prior to action
d. it may be influenced by rewards and punishments

Answer: B

248. According to the revised reinforcement sensitivity theory (Gray and McNaughton, 2000), the behavioural inhibition system (BIS)

a. detects goal conflict between reward and punishment
b. gives one a sensitivity to punishment
c. gives one a sensitivity to reward
d. encourages inhibition of reward seeking

Answer: A

249. Why do those with orbitofrontal cortex damage perform poorly on the Iowa gambling task?

a. choices made are random
b. inability to respond flexibly
c. motivated by reward only (not losses)
d. sensitive to punishment of loss

Answer: C

250. According to the incentive sensitization theory of addiction (Robinson and Berridge, 1993), increased dopamine as a result of repeated drug use leads to

a. sensitivity to the rewarding aspect of the drug
b. neural adaptations in the mesolimbic dopamine system
c. increased sensitivity seen as facial reactivity to pleasure in the rat
d. tolerance of the rewarding effect of a drug

Answer: B

251. Self-actualization is the process whereby individuals

a. establish their concept of self
b. become selfless
c. reach their full potential
d. realize their ideal self

Answer: C

252. Matsuda et al. (2008) found that there appeared to be a cultural difference between Western and Japanese people's visual interpretations of emotion, specifically that

a. Westerners seem less sensitive to the visual perception of emotion than Japanese people
b. Japanese people tend to focus on the mouth, while Westerners seem to look at the eyes
c. Westerners incorporate social context into emotional perception, while Japanese people tend to see emotions as individual feelings
d. Japanese people tend to interpret emotions in a group context, while Westerners tend to view emotions in relation to only the individual

Answer: D

253. Psychometric scales are

a. tests used to measure a person's level of psychopathy
b. an instrument to estimate the mass of a person's brain

c. **survey-type questions that can be used to establish a quantitative measure of a trait, emotion, mood, etc.**
d. **questions that assess a person's level of latent psychic ability**

Answer: C

254. Which region of the brain appears to be responsible for the freeze response to a fear stimulus?

a. **the hypothalamus**
b. **the periaqueductal grey matter**
c. **the orbitofrontal cortex**
d. **the anterior cingulate cortex**

Answer: B

255. Which of the following brain regions has NOT been identified by researchers as being activated in response to pleasurable emotions

a. **the anterior cingulate cortex**
b. **the orbitofrontal cortex**
c. **the insular cortex**
d. **the medulla oblongata**

Answer: D

256. A cognitive process that starts with simple processes and builds to the more-complex higher levels is known as

a. **bottom–up processing**
b. **lateral processing**
c. **internal processing**
d. **top–down processing**

Answer: A

257. Deliberately reinterpreting an event with the intention of modifying the emotional response to it is known as

a. **cognitive distortion**
b. **cognitive suppression**
c. **cognitive reappraisal**
d. **cognitive control**

Answer: C

258. The emotional processing explanation of post-traumatic stress disorder suggests that the patient

a. **has a cognitive bias that the world is dangerous**
b. **has a tendency to avoid situations that remind him/her of the trauma**
c. **has repressed emotional responses**
d. **has an inability to recognize fear in others**

Answer: A

259. Which of the following best describes the concept of an emotion?

a. a response to an external or internal stimulus with the purpose of motivating an action or behaviour
b. an enduring or recurrent state with no specific causes
c. the mental representation of general feelings within an individual
d. a highly illogical concept, captain

Answer: A

260. TMS is a technique to manipulate activity in a particular brain regions. TMS stands for

a. Transcranial melatonin simulation
b. Transatlantic motivation system
c. Transorbital motor sensitization
d. Transcranial magnetic stimulation

Answer: D

261. According to Tuckman (1965), which of the following is NOT a stage of the life cycle of a group:

a. performing
b. norming
c. reforming
d. storming

Answer: C

262. The phenomenon whereby an individual in a group will tend to end up agreeing with a strong majority opinion in spite of their own judgement is known as

a. normative influence
b. informative influence
c. critical mass influence
d. bullying influence

Answer: A

263. The idea that the degree to which you will be influenced by the opinion of another group member will depend on how much you identify with that person is known as

a. reactive intransigence influence
b. referent informational influence
c. reconciliation of internal influence
d. reorganizational interest influence

Answer: B

264. Which of the following is NOT suggested as an explanation for poor group motivation?

a. lack of individual feedback

b. lack of clear performance standards
c. seeing that others aren't pulling their weight
d. latent misanthropic enjoyment of group failure

Answer: B

265. The tendency whereby a group reaches a decision by trying to minimize conflict, neglecting to critically test and evaluate ideas, is termed

a. group compromise
b. group consensus
c. groupthink
d. group cohesion

Answer: C

266. The process whereby the presence of others is suggested to lead to individuals losing their sense of personal identity is termed

a. deindividuation
b. deindividualization
c. individualization
d. individuation

Answer: A

267. The tendency whereby groups make decisions that are more extreme than the individuals' opinions within the group is termed

a. group polarization
b. group cohesion
c. group deindividuation
d. group extremism

Answer: A

268. Steiner (1972) called losses in group productivity due to poor coordination

a. disorganization losses
b. momentum losses
c. process losses
d. laziness losses

Answer: C

269. Which of the following did Wilfred Bion (1961) NOT observe as a quality that was likely to be present in a group with 'good group spirit'?

a. flexibility of group membership
b. the presence of distinct subgroups
c. common purpose
d. valuing of all group members

Answer: B

270. The so-called 'Hawthorne effect' refers to which group-related phenomenon?

a. one person in a group usually does most of the work

b. people in groups tend to try to get away with doing as little as possible
c. people always perform better when they're being watched
d. there is usually one person in a group who will try to argue against the majority

Answer: C

271. Which of the following terms is used to refer to the potential negative effects of group identification that stem from processes like stigma and rejection?

a. the Social Curse
b. the Exclusion Hypothesis
c. the Norm-Violation Problem
d. the Discrimination Dilemma

Answer: A

272. The term 'groupthink' was coined by

a. Janis (1972)
b. Jarvis (1972)
c. Jager (1972)
d. Jarratt (1972)

Answer: A

273. Groupthink refers to the process by which, when making decisions, the group places more importance on

a. reaching a cohesive agreement
b. making a quality decision
c. reaching a speedy decision
d. reaching a well-evaluated decision

Answer: A

274. Diener's (1980) explanation of deindividuation posited that deindividuation is the result of

a. decreased self-awareness
b. decreased responsibility
c. increased anonymity
d. increased group size

Answer: A

275. Group polarization refers to the tendency whereby

a. groups make decisions that are more extreme than the individuals' opinions
b. conflict of individuals' extreme opinions causes the group to side with the majority
c. the opinions of the minority shift to the majority
d. groups make decisions that are less extreme than the individuals' opinions

Answer: A

276. Which of the following is NOT a type of theory seeking to explain group polarization?

a. **persuasive argument**
b. **social categorization processes**
c. **social comparison processes**
d. **social conformity processes**

Answer: D

277. Identification with social groups has been shown to lead to various psychological outcomes. Which of the following is NOT one of them?

a. **self-esteem**
b. **distinctiveness**
c. **belonging**
d. **narcissism**

Answer: D

278. According to Tajfel and Turner (1979), which of the following is a primary reason for choosing to identify with a group?

a. **to avoid loneliness**
b. **a fear of missing out**
c. **a desire to prove loyalty to a stereotype**
d. **to maintain a positive sense of self**

Answer: D

279. The Social Cure (Jetten et al. 2009 & 2012) refers to

a. **improvements in group cohesion as a result of socializing together**
b. **improvements in health and well-being as a result of identification with a group**
c. **improvements in social mobility resulting from free social care provision**
d. **improvements in health and well-being as a result of socialism**

Answer: B

280. According to Moscovici (1980), the best way for a minority to exert influence on the majority's opinion is to

a. **maintain a consistent position over time**
b. **express extreme opinions**
c. **stress the importance of their opinion**
d. **express creative opinions**

Answer: A

281. Tajfel (1978) proposed that a group is

a. **a set of people who feel that they are a group**
b. **a set of people who outsiders see as a group**

c. a set of people with a common goal
d. a set of people with shared beliefs

Answer: A

282. An unreasonable or unfair dislike of something, or more usually, someone, typically because they belong to a specific race, religion or group, is referred to as

a. stereotyping
b. prejudice
c. scapegoating
d. discrimination

Answer: B

283. An oversimplified, generalized impression of someone or something is referred to as

a. a stereotype
b. prejudice
c. a scapegoat
d. discrimination

Answer: A

284. The consideration or treatment of others based on general factors (e.g. their race, religion or some other grouping), rather than on individual merit, is termed

a. a stereotype
b. prejudice
c. scapegoating
d. discrimination

Answer: D

285. Someone who is (often unfairly) made to take the blame for something is referred to as

a. a scapegoat
b. prejudiced
c. discriminated
d. stereotyped

Answer: A

286. A stance in which an individual believes that their own race/ethnic group (or aspects of it, e.g. its culture) is superior to those of other groups is termed

a. ethnocentrism
b. egocentrism
c. ethnicentrism
d. existentialism

Answer: A

287. The 'FAH' refers to a tendency whereby individuals frustrated in pursuit of their goals become aggressive. 'FAH' stands for

a. frustration–aggression hypothesis
b. frustration-aggravating hypothesis
c. frustration–anger hypothesis

d. frustration–antagonism hypothesis

Answer: A

288. The social learning theory was put forward by

a. Bandura (1977)
b. Freud (1939)
c. Tajfel (1978)
d. Allport (1954)

Answer: A

289. Goals that different groups share but that can only be achieved by those groups working together are called

a. superordinate goals
b. subdominant goals
c. subsidiary goals
d. subliminal goals

Answer: A

290. According to the social identity theory, which one of our many social identities we adopt depends on:

a. an individual's mood
b. social influences
c. the context
d. situational factors

Answer: C

291. The early theorist who saw prejudice as resulting from inflexible and faulty cognitive processing was

a. Duckitt (1954)
b. Allport (1954)
c. Bandura (1954)
d. Sherif (1954)

Answer: B

292. Which authors investigated the accuracy of eye-witness testimony accounts?

a. Steele and Aronson (1995)
b. Boon and Davies (1987)
c. Blake and Mouton (1961)
d. Ferguson and Kelley (1964)

Answer: B

293. The concept of ethnocentrism was introduced by

a. Sumner (1906)
b. Sommers (1906)
c. Summer (1906)
d. Sollman (1906)

Answer: A

294. The restraint required to limit the expression of aggression, in line with the norms of society, is the basis of theories from which school of thought?

a. Freudian
b. gestaltism

c. humanistic
d. social learning theory

Answer: A

295. The frustration–aggression hypothesis (FAH) was developed by

a. Dollard et al. (1939)
b. Deschamps and Doise (1978)
c. Boon and Davies (1987)
d. Hovland and Sears (1940)

Answer: A

296. A healthy and restorative outpouring of built-up emotional energy is termed

a. catharsis
b. cataclysm
c. catabolism
d. catachresis

Answer: A

297. The main finding of Hovland and Sears' (1940) study was

a. a positive correlation between the number of lynchings of black people and the price of cotton
b. a small, but not significant, relationship between the number of lynchings of black people and the price of cotton
c. no relationship between the number of lynchings of black people and the price of cotton
d. a negative correlation between the number of lynchings of black people and the price of cotton

Answer: D

298. Bandura (1977) saw the expression of aggression as

a. a healthy outpouring of energy
b. a calming outpouring of energy
c. encouraging of future aggressive acts
d. likely to increase frustration

Answer: C

299. Adorno et al.'s (1950) post-World War II publication, which sought to understand the psychological dynamics involved in anti-Semitism and wider ethnocentrism, was entitled

a. *The Authoritarian Personality*
b. *The Potential for Fascism*
c. *Authoritarianism*
d. *The Widening Circle of Covariation*

Answer: A

300. In Adorno et al.'s (1950) study of ethnocentrism, ethnocentrism was found to be related to the extent to which the person 'liked things as they are', which was termed

a. political and economic conservatism
b. ethnocentric traditionalism
c. traditionalist conservatism
d. social conservatism

Answer: A

301. Altemeyer (1998) devised an instrument, termed the

a. Right Wing Authoritarianism Scale
b. The Authoritarian Personality Scale
c. The Traditionalist Personality Scale
d. The Ethnocentrism Scale

Answer: A

302. Perrin (2005) found that authoritarian values and behaviour may increase in response to

a. changes in social context, such as unemployment
b. external threats, such as terrorism
c. childhood experiences
d. between-group conflict

Answer: B

303. Sherif (1966) saw the psychological processes behind discrimination and prejudice of out-groups as following on from

a. inter-group relations
b. material relations
c. conflict of beliefs
d. conformity

Answer: B

304. Which of the following was NOT an experimental stage under the first two studies of Sherif et al. (1966) on inter-group relations?

a. friendship development
b. group formation
c. introduction of superordinate goals
d. inter-group competition

Answer: C

305. In his theory of inter-group conflict, Sherif (1966) saw discrimination and prejudice of out-groups as mainly due to

a. competition for scarce resources
b. differing group values
c. extreme ideologies
d. group idealization

Answer: A

306. Blake and Mouton (1961) replicated Sherif et al.'s (1966) findings in which group of people?

a. school children
b. lecturers
c. business executives
d. medical professionals

Answer: C

307. Which of the following is NOT one of the four conditions suggested under Allport's (1954) initial contact hypothesis for contact between groups to be encouraged?

a. equal social conditions
b. support of authorities within the group of contact
c. common goals between the groups
d. similar group size

Answer: D

308. Amir contributed to Allport's contact hypothesis, adding the condition for contact between groups to be

a. rewarding
b. close
c. for a sustained period
d. equal

Answer: A

309. The concept of superordinate goals derives from

a. group conflict theory
b. behavioural conflict theory
c. realistic conflict theory
d. social conflict theory

Answer: C

310. Which of the following is NOT listed as a predictor of collective action in van Zomeren, Postmes and Spears' social identity model of collective action (SIMCA)?

a. perceived injustice
b. perceived efficacy
c. a sense of social identity
d. a sense of superiority

Answer: D